# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 22, 1900.

## The Week.

The most striking feature of the Porto Rico imbroglio is the fact that the moral issue involved appeals most strongly to the people of what we have always called the West—that great stretch of country between the Alleghanies and the Rockies, full as it is of life, eager to make money, enthusiasitc over material prospects, so busy that one might think it had not time to bother over a mere question of right or wrong. Yet it is this very section which has been most deeply stirred by the new issue in our politics, which is most impatient of the excuses and pleas for injustice that are put forth, which is most insistent that the nation shall treat its new possessions with justice, whatever the cost. The Puritan conscience may not find expression when the Maine Senators speak, as it did when Representative Littlefield was heard from, but what we have always known as the New England spirit is now shown to pervade that great Western region which is coming to dominate the United States. The best hope for the republic is the proof now afforded that moral issues are still potent with the American people.

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The Senate on Friday finally reconciled itself to passing the $2,000,000 appropriation for the relief of Porto Rico. When the tariff bill was before the House, Chairman Cannon of the Appropriations Committee insisted that it must be passed, or $2,000,000 must be given in charity, to which latter policy the Republicans were opposed. Within three days after passing the tariff bill which was to render unnecessary a relief bill, the House voted the $2,000,000 appropriation. The Senate has now agreed to this grant, and thus removed all excuse for making the tariff bill a law. But the Senate champions of the protected interests are still trying to save the discredited measure. The question is simply whether they will yield to the popular demand for free trade, or obey the orders which were recently issued by the New York *Press*, organ of the protected interests, in these words:

> "The Porto Rico tariff is a protective measure, passed by the House and favorably reported in the Senate upon the demand of protected industries. It is going to stand as long as the Republican party is in power, whether two years or twenty. It is silly as well as cowardly for those who call themselves Republicans to lie about the matter."

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In a private letter allowed to be given to the public last week, Dr. Schurman declares himself for free trade with Porto Rico as a matter of moral obligation, and the only way in which we can keep the promise made by Gen. Miles, in behalf of the United States, when he secured the easy submission of the people by pledging that they should enjoy the same rights, privileges, and immunities as our own people. But the most important part of President Schurman's letter is that in which he takes up the pretence that a tariff must be put on Porto Rico in order to provide a case for the courts and test our rights in the Philippines. The President of the Philippine Commission admits that our legislation about Porto Rico must be a test, and a test before the eyes of the Filipinos, but it will be in their eyes a test of our national good faith. Spain made such promises to the Filipinos as we have made to the Porto Ricans. Dr. Schurman says that the Filipinos keep well informed of all our doings, and if we break our word to the Porto Ricans, they will believe that the Americans are no more trustworthy than the Spaniards. The Senators who are standing out for a Porto Rican tariff are thus, to quote President Schurman, "strengthening the hands of Aguinaldo and the insurgents."

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President Schurman made some interesting remarks at the banquet to the navy given by the Colonial Club on Thursday evening. He paid a deserved tribute to the integrity, manliness, and sense of honor exhibited by the naval officers at Manila after the destruction of the Spanish fleet and the capture of that place last year. Duties of civil administration were thrown upon them necessarily, and these were performed by them in the most exemplary manner. Not a stain was found on their record from first to last. From Dewey down to the youngest subaltern, all performed their tasks with fidelity. It was incumbent on the speaker to give effect to this honorable example by applying it to the future administration of the islands. "To this high standard," he said, "the *civil* administration has been foreordained and called by the anterior achievements of the navy." Called, indeed, it has been, but not foreordained. We should be glad to think that there was some invisible but omnipotent force working for civil-service reform in the Philippines more effectively than in the United States; so that when a number of offices are wanted—to control a nominating convention, in Ohio for example—the civil-service debauchery necessary for the purpose shall be confined strictly to ourselves, and not find any reflection or counterpart in our colonies. But we can see no element of foreordination in the case which promises better government in the Philippines, where our civil servants would not be exposed to constant observation and criticism, than in the United States, where they are subjected to daily scrutiny.

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As the war in South Africa is apparently nearing its term, the Associated Press correspondent in Manila starts up to remind us that we have a war of our own. Our Philippine war began seven months before the Boer war, and we wager that President McKinley would give an elegantly bound copy of his car-platform speeches to any man who would guarantee him that the fighting in Luzon would be over in seven months' time after it has ceased in the Transvaal. Just when Lord Roberts is having the happiest kind of time in Bloemfontein, receiving the surrender and the allegiance of the Free Staters, Gen. Otis reports that Manila, after American occupancy for nineteen months, is "the most troublesome centre in the situation." Now why is this? Why must we hear of "active rebel organization" in several provinces? Why have we to learn of the municipal presidents, under our rule, committing acts of "treason and perfidy"? What is implied in the assertion that "travel between the towns garrisoned by the Americans is becoming more dangerous"? One might say that this is "anarchy," did he not remember that the wise and good men who took the islands did it precisely to prevent anarchy. Therefore, it cannot be anarchy, but what it is we wish some good Imperialist authority would explain. No pessimist need mutter, no Mugwump sneer, no "little American" peep; but just let a vociferous patriot of the order of the screaming eagle get up and tell us about the present situation in the Philippines—just what it means, how he likes it, and how long this sort of thing is going to last.

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Secretary Root's statement to the editor of the Havana *Discusión* that the term of American intervention will be brief, cannot fail to have a good effect even upon those Cubans who desire the immediate departure of the American troops and government. Similarly, his reported statement that the Cubans "will be fit to govern themselves after a proper experience," will do much to smooth Gen. Wood's way, and to counteract any uneasiness which the visit of the Senate sub-committee on Cuba may cause in Cuban circles. These three Senators, it is stated, are to see for themselves whether the Cubans are fit for self-government, and it is extremely unfortunate that their departure should give rise to press statements that an unfavorable report from them may mean a change in

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the Administration's declared policy of granting absolute independence to the island. As long as such rumors as these are afloat, and as long as such a man as Mr. Richard Olney openly advocates the seizure of Cuba without regard to the nation's solemn pledge to it of freedom, it is impossible to expect the Cubans to be in anything else than a restless and excited condition. Nor does the spectacle of the President's wabbling over Porto Rico, or the present split in the Republican party, give them much confidence in the statesmen in whose hands their fate lies.

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Secretary Long's order for the creation of a navy general staff, or permanent strategic board, is another evidence of a willingness on the part of army and navy men to accept European ideas and methods, which was wholly lacking a few years ago. The value of such a supreme board has been recognized in Europe for many years past, and was thoroughly demonstrated in our own conflict with Spain. It is natural, therefore, that it should be instituted in time of peace, with a view to its being all the better prepared in time of war; and the appointment to it of the chief intelligence officers and the heads of the Naval War College will lead to the board's being supplied with the latest foreign and tactical knowledge. It is not unreasonable to expect that a similar board may grow out of Secretary Root's excellent plan for an Army War College, and there should be the closest connection between the two. From the purely military point of view, the two services have reason to be pleased with these evidences that some of the lessons of the Spanish war are being taken to heart.

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There are many interesting and novel features in Representative McClellan's bill for the reorganization of the army. If it provides for the much-needed general staff by the consolidation of the Adjutants-General, the Inspectors-General, and the Record and Pension Office, it fails, on the other hand, to amalgamate the existing supply departments with the line, and adds still another staff body, to be known as the Equipment Corps, to those already in existence. It merges the Signal Corps with the Engineers, and the Ordnance Department with the Artillery, and then increases both bodies, giving to the fortress and light artillery 21,500 of the 63,143 combatant troops provided. Should the bill become a law, the cavalry would consist of fifteen regiments instead of the existing ten, and the infantry of sixty battalions instead of the seventy-five now organized. Still another novel feature of the bill is a proposition to "territorialize" and popularize the different regiments by having them draw regularly upon a fixed territory for their recruits and remounts, as is the custom in the English army. Furthermore, Mr. McClellan's measure provides for the automatic expansion of the army to 150,000 men, on the outbreak of war. This fact alone should insure its receiving a careful hearing and close study in Congress, apart from the reputation of Mr. McClellan as a thorough and scientific student of military affairs.

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Some days ago the abandonment, for the present session, of the ship-subsidy bill was announced from Washington. The news is confirmed by the Philadelphia *Ledger*, whose Washington correspondent quotes a member of the committee on merchant marine as saying:

"I know that a number of members who favor the bill would vote against it if it were to be pressed to a vote this session. No matter how fair and just the pending measure may be, nor how much some members from the West may be in favor of building up our foreign commerce, there is a strong feeling of criticism in some parts of the West since the vote on the Porto Rican tariff bill. The people of Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, and Wisconsin are stirred up over the Porto Rican matter, and in a temper to kick on anything else that they do not fully understand or that they may dislike."

The Porto Rican tariff bill comes in very opportunely as an excuse for Republican Congressmen who have wanted all the time to kill the bill, but did not know exactly how to accomplish that object. There have been plenty of votes to defeat it, or any subsidy bill; but certain members who wished to do so were wearing the yoke of Mark Hanna, and they did not see exactly how to cast it off. Their opposition took the form of amendments here and there, and of delays in bringing up the consideration of the measure. It was the kind of opposition which is always the most dangerous—an opposition which makes use of any weapon that comes handy to stab the hated thing to the vitals. The Porto Rican tariff is such a weapon. But, even without it, the subsidy bill would have failed this time.

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In connection with the statement that the subsidy bill will not pass at this session of Congress, the *Ledger* publishes, in deadly parallel, two deliverances of opposite character from Mr. Charles H. Cramp, the great Philadelphia shipbuilder. One of these is a very fresh statement (fresh in more ways than one), from Mr. Cramp, saying that "the cost of building merchant ships is from 15 to 25 per cent. higher in this country than in other countries, and it will remain so as long as the present restricted demand for merchant ships continues in the United States." This is dated March 13, 1900. The other is from an article from Mr. Cramp's pen in the *North American Review* in 1892. In this article Mr. Cramp puts to himself the question: "Can you build a ship to do the work of the *City of New York*, or the *Majestic*, or the *Columbia* for the same cost, *i. e.*, the same as the cost of those ships?" Then he continues:

"To that question I would reply, 'Yes, or within as small a margin as would be likely to prevail in a similar case between any two British shipyards.' . . . The 'first cost' of ships is not only not a prime factor, but it is not even a serious factor, in any competition that may occur between this country and Great Britain for a share of the traffic of the ocean."

Now it is not pretended that the cost of ship-building has risen here relatively more than in Great Britain since 1892. There has been an advance in iron and some other materials, but not more here than there. In fact, we are able to export steel to Great Britain now. We could not do so eight years ago. Mr. Cramp evidently had the prophet's vision enabling him to foresee this condition of things, since, in the concluding paragraph of his article, he expressed the belief that within a few years Englishmen would be asking each other: "Can we build ships as economically as they can in the United States?" Which of these two Cramps ought Mark Hanna to put confidence in?

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Every such movement as that of the Gold Democrats of Indianapolis toward some other resource than McKinley and Bryan in next fall's election is to be welcomed. It is, of course, too early to take any definite action, but it is not too soon for those who want something better than a choice of evils in November to hold conferences. The feeling of disgust with McKinley has gained greatly in force since he "changed his mind" about "our plain duty" as a nation to Porto Rico, at the demand of the protected interests. On the other hand, Bryan still seems an intolerable alternative to Independent voters who feel that they cannot help the President to a reëlection. Between now and midsummer it ought to be possible to secure a candidate and a platform worthy of enthusiastic support.

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The chief part of the platform adopted by the Nebraska Democrats, Mr. Bryan being present, on Monday, relates to what is commonly called Imperialism, and here, contrary to our expectation, we find an explicit demand that the Philippine Islands be first provided with a stable form of government; second, that they be made independent; and third, that their independence be guaranteed by the United States, under a protectorate similar to that which we have tacitly afforded to the republics of South and Central America hitherto. As incidental to this programme, it is declared that the American Union cannot long endure half republic and half empire; that wars should not be undertaken for conquest and for colonial dominion; that militarism is a danger to republican insti-

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tutions, and that the United States should cultivate peace, commerce, and friendship with all nations, and entangling alliances with none. The fact that Porto Rico is a part of the United States seems to be recognized, and the tariff bill lately passed by the House of Representatives is condemned as a violation of the Constitution and a flagrant breach of good faith. These declarations are free from ambiguity, and would undoubtedly attract to the Democratic party the great majority of the Anti-Imperialists if they were not deterred by other considerations. On the currency question the platform demands "an American financial system," "secured by the free and unlimited coinage of gold and silver at the present legal ratio of 16 to 1," without international aid.

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A bill providing for a written contract of marriage, instead of the verbal one now recognized as valid by the law of New York, has passed the Assembly, with little opposition. Contracts of marriage pursuant to the rules of a religious society to which either party belongs, as well as those before magistrates, are recognized as valid; but where the religious ceremony does not take place, both parties must sign a written contract, stating their place of residence and the date and place of marriage, which instrument must be acknowledged like a deed, and filed in the proper office within six months. The introducer of the bill defended it chiefly as a measure intended to protect wealthy bachelors, while living, against the blackmailing devices of adventuresses, and to guard their estates against similar attacks after they had died. It is also defended as a protection to women who may suppose themselves to be married according to the common law, but find they are mistaken. Incidentally there may be some relief from the dangers to real-estate titles from claims of dower-right on the part of "common-law wives," which in such a city as New York are a serious matter. Probably even here there are few women, even among the most ignorant classes, who do not regard religious sanction as essential to marriage, so that the requirement of a written contract is not likely to work injustice.

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The development of the machinists' strike in Chicago will be regarded with much uneasiness throughout the country. People have not yet forgotten the terrible scenes of 1894, following the Pullman strike; and in some respects the conditions now are worse than they were then. According to all accounts, the government of Chicago is unable or unwilling to deal with ordinary crime, and, should any considerable outbreak of violence occur, little reliance could be placed on the police force. As to what may be expected from the State authorities, Gov. Tanner has already made his record. He has declared his determination to employ the forces of the State of Illinois in support of men defying the law, and has said that he would shoot to pieces men coming into the State to do the work which men already there refused to perform. This precedent shows that the strikers need not fear that the troops of the State will be used to protect those against whom their violence may be directed. In 1894 the President of the United States was Mr. Cleveland, and every one knows how he dealt with the situation. When it became apparent that the local authorities were not going to suppress the rioting, Mr. Cleveland promptly used the Federal forces and put an end to it off-hand. We doubt if the country feels confident that Mr. McKinley will act with such vigor. He is supposed to be very anxious for a re-election, and it might be fatal to his hopes to offend the "labor vote" by using Federal troops to put down rioters.

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As "an experiment in Christian journalism," the Rev. Charles M. Sheldon's transformation of the Topeka *Capital*, for one week only, proves absolutely nothing that was not known before. It was known that excellent men could do silly things. It was no secret that people would, for a time, run curiously after a novelty, however labelled. Mr. Sheldon announced that the one test applied to everything admitted to his paper would be, "What would Jesus do?" This is, to our minds, a form of that sacred profanity in which good people sometimes indulge without seeing how it cheapens and degrades a holy name. One effect of the announcement was to bring this pointed question from an old subscriber, who objected to the price of the paper being more than doubled for the sake of the experiment: "If Jesus were to assume the management of the *Capital*, do you think he would put up the price on us like that the very first dash out of the box?" As far as "sales" go, it is clear that a newspaper edited for a week under the avowed auspices of the Devil would dispose of as many copies as the large number which, in the case of the *Capital*, seems so extraordinary a phenomenon to some innocent minds. Let Mr. Sheldon give us a Christian daily newspaper, not for a week, but for a year or five years; let him sell it on its merits, not by flashy methods of artificial bidding for favor; and then let him at the end exhibit his moral and financial balance-sheet. Under those conditions, some conclusions of value could be drawn. At present, the only clear inference is that a nine days' wonder may have the character of a religious sensation. But we knew that before.

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It is an interesting coincidence that on the very day on which the gold standard was formally adopted by the United States, the German Reichstag adopted the coinage bill which is intended to reduce the dangers of the "limping standard" by converting the unused silver in the Treasury into subsidiary coins. The quantity of silver thus held has been so large as to be felt as a menace ever since the sale of it was stopped in 1879 by Bismarck. At that time there were some 450,000,000 marks in thalers and 420,000,000 marks in other silver coins on hand, and, a few years after, the silver money of the Empire stood to the gold money in the ratio of three to two. The law now passed provides for calling in the gold five-mark piece and some other minor coins, and for the issue of subsidiary silver coins up to fifteen marks per head of the population. It is one more stage in the process of discontinuing the use of silver as a standard of value. The bimetallists opposed it, and tried to amend it so that the Government should be obliged to buy silver bullion for minting into the new coins, as our Government was compelled to do by the act of 1890; but they were beaten by 161 to 61 votes. Had our free-silver party had its way, the German Government would have been able to unload its superfluous silver on our people; but, that possibility having been extinguished, there is nothing better for it to do than to use as much of its stock as the German people need for small change, and hoard the rest, or sell it for what it will bring.

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Lord Roberts's formal occupation of Bloemfontein is evidently intended as the formal annexation of the Orange Free State to the British crown. That there is at least a faction of the burghers to whom this result will not be unwelcome, is clear from the reception of the British troops. It is to be remembered that the Free State did, in fact, long before these latter-day troubles, make official application to the British Government to be annexed. If the Free Staters still believe, as did their fathers, that their rights and the equality of the white races will be preserved under the British flag, their resistance will not be prolonged. It was a generous instinct of race sympathy which led them to cast in their lot with the Transvaal. Mr. Balfour called it an "idiotic" thing to do; but ties of blood and common aspirations lead men to do many things undreamed of in the philosophy of the abstract political philosopher. We can but think it a pity that Lord Salisbury, in his necessary rejection of President Krüger's terms, did not see fit to indicate the conditions of peace he would accept, including a general outline of the government intended for the two republics in the future. A little far-sighted and generous statesmanship now might save many lives.

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### *HOLE-AND-CORNER IMPERIALISM.*

It would take an extraordinarily optimistic Republican Macbeth to see in the events at Washington

> "——happy prologues to the swelling act
> Of the imperial theme."

If this is the prologue of imperialism, the Republican party may well exclaim, what will the fifth act be, and how many of us will be left on the stage when the final curtain is rung down? Never was there such a lamentable descent from the heights of imperial rhetoric to the mire of imperial fact as the Republicans have executed in their attempts to legislate for Porto Rico. That island is but a tiny speck in the ocean. The problems connected with its government are but kindergarten exercises compared with the difficulties which loom before us in Cuba and the Philippines. Yet our glib and gleeful imperialists cannot take this first easy step in carrying out their jaunty policy without treading on each other's toes, barking each other's shins, and quarrelling like a set of ward politicians, instead of being the large-minded statesmen they would have us believe them. Imperialism has been hailed as the great unifier and inspirer of the Republican party. It has proved to be about as much of a howling success, in that respect, as would be a bone flung among a pack of wolves.

The reason is not far to seek. An imperial policy requires imperial men. If a great empire goes ill with little minds, it cannot go at all with minds that reach their vanishing-point in a pocketbook. Little minds in agreement may among them muster the small amount of wisdom necessary to govern; but little minds distracted, little minds engaged in big quarrels, can scarcely trick the most simple into supposing that they are the fit guardians and administrators of empire. What we are seeing at Washington is the effort of parochial toads to swell themselves into imperial oxen. An ominous sound of bursting is the natural result. Where is there a sign of yielding petty local interests to the good of the whole? What Senator, in the face of imperial obligations, abates one jot of the old selfish determination to secure or retain special advantages for his State, even if he wrecks the whole pending measure and tears the party in two? We have carefully watched for the predicted appearance of the new, the noble, the large imperial spirit in imperial legislation, but we have not seen it. What we have seen is the old narrowness intensified, the former local greed become more exigent and defiant than ever. The imperialism now on exhibition at Washington is a thing of shreds and patches. Instead of an eagle, flying in the eye of the sun, the Republican party has taken for its imperial symbol the humble dunghill fowl, mounted aloft to change with every gust of the changing wind.

It is a sure instinct which leads disgusted Republicans to fix the greater part of the blame for their unhappy plight upon the President. Vacillating leadership means a rent and dissevered following. Mr. McKinley can execute his rightabouts with the ease of long practice, but his army necessarily straggles in the operation. Lord Charles Beresford once neatly returned a left-handed compliment. A trimming politician was congratulating him on a recent speech—"Capital speech, that of yours, Beresford—very good speech, indeed—but you don't look like a statesman." "I dare say not," replied the bluff sailor, "but no more do you look like a weathercock." President McKinley looks like a statesman, but this Porto Rican episode has left it for ever certain that he is the merest weather-vane of a leader, pointing north by south.

Everybody knows that the strongest gales which blow over the White House, revealing to anxious observers the direction of the wind, come from the cave of that political Æolus, Senator Hanna. He has to raise the wind, and is necessarily the great authority on it. Unusual significance attaches, therefore, to his explanation of the strange veering of the wind in the Porto Rico affair. He roundly declares that all the outcry about free trade for the Porto Ricans is merely "sentimental." Can any man look on Hanna and suspect him of sentiment? Keeping our promises, relieving the starving, doing what we have declared to be our plain duty—all this, to Hanna, is mere mawkish sentiment, and he will none of it. It will all blow over and be forgotten, he asserts; while, if he can show any protected interest that he has helped it make larger profits, if he can go to a Trust and prove that he has put money in its purse, he knows that he has established a sure basis for gratitude, and so for campaign contributions, and so for success at the polls. That is his frankly mercenary platform; and it remains to be seen if the party of moral ideas will put itself into the hands of a man who sneers at good faith and humanity as "sentimental," and who sums up politics as the art of buying votes.

The appeal now lies to imperialists to be truly imperial. They have freely taunted their opponents with being parochial—little Americans, unable to see beyond their own noses. But who are the parochial statesmen now? Who is now "shrinking from responsibilities"? Why, even Lodge is shivering at his own greatness, and treating the large question of government of our new possessions as if it were an intrigue to carry a caucus in the third ward of Lynn. So we say to our erstwhile loud-sounding imperialists that it is time for them to come out of their holes and caucuses and make their boasts good. Having foisted an empire upon the country, let them stand up like men and insist that its affairs be conducted in a truly imperial way; so as to bind our new fellow-citizens to us, not drive them to despair and revolt. Thus far the imperialism of action, as distinguished from the imperialism of talk, has shown itself at Washington to be of the most wretched description—nothing but the whiffle-and-squeak methods which we have been accustomed to in ward politics, but which so ill become the stage of empire.

### *NEW MEN IN PUBLIC LIFE.*

In Sir Richard Temple's recent and rather dull book on the House of Commons occurs this expression of opinion: "Of all advantages in the House, the greatest is youth." By this is not meant that Parliament puts a premium upon conceited ignorance or callow bumptiousness. What Sir Richard had in mind is the fact that a member who begins young is more apt to make a great figure in the House, in time, than one who begins late in life. Mr. John Morley entered Parliament in middle life and shortly won a high reputation, which he still enjoys; but he is about the only instance of the kind we can think of. Mr. Lecky has been a member of the present House, but is evidently ill at ease in his surroundings; and, while respected on all hands, will clearly never acquire great Parliamentary influence.

Youth in public life has, however, more than the mere advantage of elasticity and ready adaptability. An expectant and benevolent audience is assured it. The older generation of legislators and the community at large turn with almost pathetic eagerness to the new men who appear upon the scene. Will they uphold the honorable tradition? Will they bring fresh courage and enthusiasm, as well as ability, to their task? Any young public servant who shows signs of answering these questions in the affirmative has an enormous advantage in his career. The country and his fellows in service are drawn to him from the start. Look, for example, at the prestige won in the House of Commons by Mr. George Wyndham. Almost unknown before the present session, except as a clever writer and a charming personality, he has stepped at once into the front rank. As Under-Secretary for War, his speeches on military matters have been marked by such grasp of detail and lucidity of exposition, by such a high personal note and unaffected eloquence, that he has conquered all judgments and captivated all hearts. The older members almost wept tears of joy over him, and Sir William Harcourt nearly sang his *nunc dimittis* at the appearance of a young man promising to uphold the noble traditions of the House. It was a

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signal instance of the way in which the world looks to youth for perpetual renovation.

Congress is not behind Parliament in this perennial renewal of hope in young members. Senator Depew could not quite understand why his maiden speech should have fallen flat while Senator Beveridge's went reverberating. The New York Senator was suffering from the disadvantage of *anno domini*. It was the youth from Indiana, not the veteran from New York, that the Senate and the country were interested in. Senator Hoar spoke for all in welcoming young blood and "silver speech" in the Senate; though, in his moral castigation which followed, it might have seemed that his welcome was "with bloody hands to hospitable grave." But all the old Senators, we know, were most friendly to the new arrival. One of them was talking the other day about Mr. Beveridge. The trouble was, not his youth, but his conceit. He had coolly asked to be put on all the important committees of the Senate. "Well, the Senate is a good place to take the conceit out of a man?" "Yes, but if that is all there is in him, the operation is likely to be fatal." This cynical word was not meant, however, to be taken as all that was to be said about the new Senator.

At the other end of the Capitol, the session has seen a new man leap into national prominence. Some of the old stagers cannot account for Mr. Littlefield. Seldom, indeed, has such impact been made on the House and on the country by a man in his first term. It is admitted, too, that his influence and repute are not likely to be ephemeral. He has made for himself a great place, and can fill it as long as he likes, and make it greater. It is a puzzle to the party hacks. Have they served and slaved for years to have this newcomer throw them into the shade? They fail to see how courage and conviction and good-natured strength have not lost their power to sway the country. The people are not yet discouraged by party tyranny and the dead uniformity of party men. Still springs the hope that the old moulds will be broken; that public men of original force will arise; that independence and the initiative of native leadership will assert themselves. Hence the joyful acclaim which marks the advent of every able and fearless man like Mr. Littlefield, every honest and outspoken official like Mr. Coler. The public is eager to be served by, and will delight to honor, such men. In the very weariness which the country has come to feel with the dead routine of party politics and with the endlessly repeated and uninteresting type of party servant, lies the opportunity of young men who would breathe the breath of life into the dry bones of our public life. They may be sure of public favor from the beginning; and it is for their talent and character to command public coöperation, and such rewards as a grateful people can bestow upon the man who renews the age-long hope of purity and capacity in the affairs of the commonwealth.

## *SECRETARY ROOT'S ARMY BILL.*

The bill drawn by Secretary Root to put into legislative shape some of the sweeping army reforms advocated by him in his annual report, carries with it several radical changes in the status of the officers of the line and staff, and in the organization of the artillery. Briefly stated, its important provisions provide for the amalgamation of the line and the staff corps; for the introduction of the principle of promotion partly by selection, instead of wholly by seniority; and for the reorganization of the artillery after the English example, together with its increase by 5,000 men and 184 officers.

To the other officers of the service, mindful of decades of fruitless efforts to obtain intelligent legislation for the army, the preparation of any measure to recast the service on modern lines must be a source of great encouragement such as they have never before experienced. That it should be drawn by a Secretary who, eight months ago, had no knowledge of military affairs, is a tribute to his unusual ability as well as to his desire to master the problems of his department, and to reform some of the conditions which brought discredit upon the army and the country during the little war with Spain. Both the Secretary's inexperience and the well-known conservatism of army men have led to unusually careful consideration of the measure, and it is greatly to be regretted that it contains certain defects which have made the army as unanimous in opposition to it as it is in favor of the underlying principles involved.

The advisability of doing away with nearly all the permanent staff corps is generally conceded by military men and military writers. The only criticisms of the plan now heard come from some of the present staff officers, who are anxious to retain the prestige and influence of their corps, or who sincerely believe that officers temporarily detailed to their duty for four years will not be able to master the details within that time—a criticism which holds good in regard to the very technical Ordnance Corps. Were Secretary Root's bill confined to this reform, with the Ordnance Department left unchanged, in addition to a recommendation to decrease the number of staff corps by consolidating the Quartermasters and Commissaries, as well as the Adjutants-General and Inspectors-General, the chances are that it would receive the united support of the army. Similarly, if the projected remodelling of the artillery, by doing away with the useless regimental organization of the foot and mounted batteries, stood by itself, as a very desirable administrative measure, it would meet with little or no opposition.

It is the clause that permits some promotions by selection which has called forth a chorus of protests from the army. This provides that every third promotion to the grade of colonel, lieutenant-colonel, and major, respectively, in the line shall be by selection from the next lower grade in the same arm. In each case the choice is to be made by the President from three names prepared by a board of officers, "sworn to impartially select officers for promotion according to their service records." It is the opinion of nine-tenths of the officers of the army, and also that of the leading military journal, that this will simply throw open the line to the same vicious influences which have made the staff corps the resting-place of men selected almost solely because of their "pulls," or their relationship to some Senator or Congressman. It is a long pent-up protest against "Corbinism" which is now being heard, and which prompts an old officer to write that, if the bill passes, it will be "the severest blow to our army ever struck by politicians," and that there is no use in talking about the safeguard of a board, because, as long as the President has the selection, "it will be made by him to satisfy the strongest political influence."

The protestants do not hesitate to admit that promotion by seniority alone has very obvious defects, in that men rapidly lose ambition and zeal when their advancement depends solely upon their continuing in good health. They point out, however, that nothing is more destructive to an officer's enthusiasm for his duty than to see Senator Quay's or Senator Sewell's son jumped over the heads of hundreds of older men, or to serve under brigadier-generals like Frederick Grant, or Irving Hale, or other graduates of West Point given high rank, after years in civil life, over classmates who had stayed in the army. They cite with great force many cases of gross favoritism—such as the appointments direct from civil life of a broken-down editor and a presidential milkman to majorities, which have taken place under the present Administration, and some since Secretary Root has been in office—as evidence of the kind of treatment to be expected from the Executive. They also truthfully point out that similar abuses were not at all unknown under previous Administrations.

Theoretically, the principle of promotion by selection is an excellent idea, but, under present conditions, and because of the additional fact that worthy officers often have most unequal opportunities for meritorious service, it must be conceded that the opponents of the Secretary's plan have by far the best of the argument. "Corbinism" and the spoils

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system gravely weakened the Government service when the country was engaged in war. What guarantee can Secretary Root furnish of better things in time of peace? Certainly not the mere swearing-in of promotion boards, because he could be shown at once many cases where physically and mentally disqualified officers have been allowed to pass the present examining boards. Until some better system has been devised, the principle of seniority advancements should be adhered to.

There are still other provisions of questionable value in Secretary Root's bill, such as those increasing the artillery, empowering the President to transfer the duties performed by one staff corps to another, and permitting him to select the chief of any staff corps or department from the army at large—even from the newest lieutenants if he sees fit. It is sufficient to say of them that together they should make it impossible for the bill to pass in its present form. Great as is the desire for the sound reforms proposed, it is better that they should be delayed than that they should be enacted in conjunction with other changes certain to injure the service. The best way would be to submit the important propositions in separate bills for careful discussion as to their merits. If this were done, the amalgamation of the line and staff, and the remodelling of the artillery, would certainly be made possible within a short time.

## *THE NEW BANK CURRENCY.*

There begins this week an experiment in American currency, of peculiar and exceptional interest. The purpose of the bank-circulation clauses of the act of March 14, 1900, unquestionably was to increase substantially our national bank-note issues, while retaining the old system of Government bond security. It is directly to that end that the tax on bank circulation has been cut in half, and the banks permitted to issue notes to the par value of the bonds deposited, against 90 per cent. as heretofore. With the further view of dispelling the reluctance of banks to invest a premium in high-priced bonds which are certain to depreciate as their maturity draws near, the plan of refunding most of the older issues into 2 per cent. bonds has simultaneously been made law. It is assumed that whereas banks providing for new circulation may hesitate to pay the current price of 117 for the 4 per cent. bonds redeemable at par seven years from now, they will be ready to pay for the new 2 per cents the moderate premium to which the bonds would be restricted by their low rate of interest.

This law being now in full operation, three problems of the first importance at once arise to be tested: Will the banks make very large addition to their outstanding note circulation? Will that addition be permanent? And, if so, what will be the result of this currency expansion, directly on the money market, and indirectly on financial and commercial prices? On all these points, competent expert opinion differs widely. It will be useful to examine each of them.

That very considerable additions to the currency will be made, is conceded by everybody. All banks now having bonds on deposit to secure circulation will take out the additional 10 per cent. in notes permitted by the new rule. About $250,000,000 notes are now in circulation; upwards of $27,000,000 new notes will, therefore, be added as a matter of course. The lower tax and easier provisions as to bond collateral will tempt national banks to enlarge their note issues still further, and will possibly induce some State banks to surrender their charters for a national franchise. The lowering of the minimum limit of capital for a national bank will add still other new institutions to the system.

The question, how large the amount of these new issues will be, is stoutly debated. At first sight, the average observer, unfamiliar with the working of the system, would say that, since some profit appears in any case to be assured to the issuing bank, the amount of issues will be limited only by the proviso that they are not to exceed the capital of the issuer. Now the aggregate capital of the national banks is $606,000,000, and will presently be more —which would admit theoretically of an addition of some $350,000,000 to the notes now in circulation. Unfortunately for this argument, the theory has already been tested and proved erroneous. The profit on circulation has always varied with the price of Government bonds, but there has probably never been a time when there was not some profit. Yet even in 1882, when national-bank circulation reached its maximum, and when the volume of interior trade was at the highest level of the generation, outstanding note issues fell short by $100,000,000 of aggregate national-bank capital. The subsequent rapid decrease in circulation accompanied an equal rapid increase in banking capital. The simple explanation of these apparent anomalies is, that bank-notes are not profitable unless they can be kept in outside circulation. The notes are not available as lawful reserve against deposits; yet if they are issued in excess of the needs of hand-to-hand trade, a good part of them will certainly drift back as deposits into banks of the locality, and ultimately into the bank of issue. If they lie idle there, they bring no return to the issuer, but still bear the tax on circulation. There is, therefore, a very sure limit on the amount of issue, though it cannot be accurately measured in advance.

The question as to the influence of expanded bank-note currency on money rates and prices is likely to engage most of the community's attention. Broadly speaking, it is safe to say that the bank-note issues cannot directly influence either. The currency is in effect redeemable in gold; it cannot therefore depreciate, and hence the measure of values remains unaltered. As for the money market, what the borrower secures by his interest payment is the use of capital, and his bank must provide that capital in the form most convenient to the user. The simple loaning of its credit by a bank is in no respect facilitated by a power to issue notes, even if the issuing power were unlimited. Indirectly, however, the notes have a very manifest influence, from the fact that by using them, in place of Government legal-tender paper, to provide for the retail needs of depositors, the bank may be able to retain in its own vaults the Government notes and specie which are required, in the ratio of 25 per cent., as reserve against deposits. A so-called "drain on the reserves," whether from local depositors or from interior institutions with accounts in Eastern banks, necessitates, if long-continued, wholesale reduction of deposits; and this may be accomplished only by reduction of the loan account. Such a curtailment usually means a rise in money rates, followed, it may be, by a fall in speculative prices. The problem of the new bank circulation, therefore, rests on the extent to which, in a season of active demand for loans of credit, the bank-note may be substituted for the Government legal tender in providing for outside hand-to-hand circulation. This is by far the most interesting part of the experiment. The utility of the note in this direction, it may be safely said in advance, will depend on two factors: demand for retail currency which will decide whether any substitution of notes is necessary; and demand for loans, which will settle the question whether legal reserves do or do not need at the moment to be protected against enlarged deposits. Probably the new notes will serve to relieve the money strain at times of extremely active trade; in times of dulness, their influence will for the most part cease.

## BARANTE'S MEMOIRS.

PARIS, March 8, 1900.

M. Claude de Barante has just published the seventh volume of the Souvenirs of his grandfather, Baron de Barante. The voluminous correspondence which appears in this new volume extends over a very interesting period, from 1841 to 1851—that is to say, from the most prosperous period of the reign of Louis Philippe to the eve of the Second Empire. The reader will be chiefly interested in the events which brought about the fall of the July Monarchy, and in the history of the short-lived Republic which took its place.

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"Our government," wrote Barante in 1846, "is stronger at home and more respected abroad than it has ever been, but the future does not appear certain. It seems as if we were approaching an unknown horizon." Nobody, however, was prepared for a revolution. On the 29th of February, 1848, Barante writes:

"Paris was for three days and three nights given over to the caprices of the will of several thousand workingmen, who roamed the streets, armed with guns, pikes, and swords. You can imagine the anxiety and terror of the population. The aspect of the city was dreadful. Order is beginning to be reëstablished and people to be reassured—at least, for the present, for the Government has no means of repression. If it had them its situation would hardly allow it to use them. The immense majority of the population with any distinction of opinion, class, or fortune, hurries into the ranks of the national guard. Whatever happens, my political life is finished."

His friend, the Duchess de Sagan, writes to him from Berlin (March 8, 1848): "You cannot imagine how eagerly we seek details on the three days of February. . . . What is unfortunately certain is that it is a downfall without any prestige. . . . The Queen and the Duchess d'Orléans are the only ones, I believe, who inspire interest and esteem. The latter is on the borders of the Rhine, where she will receive the regrets, the attentions, and the affection of everybody." To M. Guizot, Barante writes on the 12th of March:

"I know that you have calm and courage. . . . People are preparing for the elections. Our Conservatives have now no other shibboleth than respect for property. The Legitimists are delighted; their joy is all compounded of revenge, and even dispenses with hope in the chances of the future. If they had to declare themselves as between the Republic and a government that would not be Henri V., they would be Republicans. The dominant sentiment, nearly universal, is *Væ victis*. King, princes, ministers, all are anathematized for having lost the game so completely and so rapidly. The more people have criticised, blamed, attacked them, have worked for their ruin, the more they reproach them with not having sufficiently defended themselves. For instance, M. Thiers and his friends are more furious precisely because the Government has not obtained a victory by which they would have profited. This is, my dear friend, what seventeen years of order, of peace, of liberty, of prosperity, have left, in the way of gratitude, in our unreasonable country. The provinces are in a state of consternation, and very apathetic towards the Republic, which lives only by the extinction of other opinions and by the state of insurrection among the workingmen."

M. Guizot was in London; M. de Barante retired to Auvergne, a quiet province; his correspondents sent him news from all parts of Europe. Princess Lieven wrote to him from London:

"Prince Metternich talks and talks before a very limited audience, . . . having only a few foreigners in the evening. He always talks of himself, and so lengthily and slowly; in fact, he bores everybody. M. Guizot is very busy with his son first, and then with 'Charles I.' He dines out a good deal, for everybody wants to have him. He bores nobody."

The Duchess de Sagan's letters to Barante are very interesting. She has had news from Claremont, and writes: "They say that there are the young princes, who suffer bitterly from their forced inactivity; that this bitterness finds vent in harsh words about their aged father, whom the children reproach with having lost the game. The father is preoccupied with the judgment which posterity will pass on him. The mother is perfectly courageous, mild, resigned, and dignified."

The reaction of the provinces against the Republic increased after the repression of the bloody insurrection of June. The name of Napoleon was in every mouth; though he was almost unknown, he appeared like a saviour. From Tours, the Duke Pasquier wrote to Barante on the 21st of June, 1848:

"The movement in favor of Louis Bonaparte, whom we both had once to sit in judgment on, is increasing in Paris, and people talk only of him in all this neighborhood from which I write. . . . President of the Republic, or Emperor, or King, never mind which, I go for whoever will give us security and confidence; and I well know that there is such a need of these two blessings that they will be gratefully received from any hand that offers them. But it is not enough to be the heir to such a great name; one must be capable of bearing it and of finding people to help him do so. There is the difficulty."

"We need a Washington," wrote Barante to the Count d'Houdetot, "but Washingtons are as rare as Napoleons." Gen. Cavaignac had triumphed over the June insurrection, but "France is not out of the chaos into which the revolution of February threw her. There is no courage left in France except for attacking or defending barricades; there are no opinions, only a desire to preserve one's life and property. Nobody in the Government or in the Assembly will dare to do anything. The Republicans doubt the possibility of the Republic, and are not zealous for its establishment. Those who wish it democratic are so near those who wish it socialistic that they cannot be separated." In another letter Barante says:

"General Cavaignac, whom nobody among honest and sensible people now refuses to trust, is a man of courage and of conscience, sincerely determined to oppose all disorder. But his family surroundings, his political friendships, the way in which he attained to power, all help to give him many prejudices and illusions. He has in his imagination a Republic which is neither red nor socialistic, but would be democratic—that is to say, a republic in which his friends of the *National* [a paper of the time] would remain the aristocrats and the masters."

Cavaignac, after the June insurrection, became, in fact, a sort of military dictator.

"Among the few abiding convictions I have cherished," said the Duke Pasquier to Barante, "is this: These sorts of adventures, said I to myself after the revolution of February, never end otherwise than by the sword. The only port which it is possible to enter is a military despotism. But I added to this *consoling* thought, that we could not flatter ourselves that this refuge would be soon open to us; that perhaps we should have to wait a long time. . . . Well, this happy military despotism, denominated state of siege or dictatorship, as you like, is granted to us in the course of four months! What a benediction! I don't say that the benediction is complete: either the dictator must organize something for his own profit, or he must prepare some more or less analogous solution for the profit of some other power. What will that power be? I don't know; I don't see it, in truth."

We find a pretty letter from the Princess de Sagan:

"I spent a few days at Eisenach with the Duchess d'Orléans. I found her horribly thinner. She is but a shadow—but so calm, so serene, so lucid, so dignified, so strong in the truth on all subjects, so admirable at all points, that I now mix some personal tenderness with all the sentiments which I felt *de reflet* for her. She keeps far aloof from any intrigue; she allows herself no illusions or discouragement; there is in her no bitterness, no passion, no anger. . . . Her establishment is simple but decent. She is surrounded with the most tender care by her maternal family; she leaves all the rest to God. I thought I had remarked in Paris that she had some little tendency to *bel esprit*, and an imagination which might sometimes influence her judgment of persons. But misfortune has cleared and simplified all. She could not have profited better by events. Well, nothing is wanting in this admirable person but physical strength."

All the letters of the Princess de Sagan—and there are many in the volume—have this delicacy of touch, a certain sort of feminine grace; and they show a large acquaintance with the general affairs of Europe, which is often wanting in the letters of the French politicians.

The nomination of Prince Louis Napoleon as President was a surprise to all the politicians and to the Republicans, whose candidate was Gen. Cavaignac. The majority obtained by Prince Napoleon was overwhelming; it was a spontaneous protest of the provinces against the tyranny of Paris. Alexis de Saint-Priest tells in a letter of a dinner at Princess Mathilde's:

"We were all there, and the Prince had not yet appeared. When he arrived, the ladies present, who will soon be the ladies presented, rose all at once. The Princess Mathilde named all of us to him; there were among others Mignet, the Prince de Craon, etc. He met us with a mixture of timidity and of princely laconism. His appearance is ordinary, his face very ugly, and his accent very Swiss. At dinner time, he walked and was served before all the men, including his cousin Murat, with the exception of Lord Normanby. During the first part of the dinner, he did not say much; towards the second part, he began to talk, rather unexpectedly, of his candidacy, of his election. In France, he said, public opinion had never received a direction; it was time it should. This seemed to me rather proud and strong."

This dinner took place a short time before the election.

The end of the seventh volume shows, in numerous letters, the state of mind of the leading politicians during the Presidency of Louis Napoleon. The uncertainty about the future was great. Would Napoleon make a *coup d'état* something like the 18th Brumaire, and proclaim himself Emperor? Would he be content with changes in the Constitution, and with the prolongation of his powers? Was it better for the Conservative leaders of the Assembly to humor the President, to give him some satisfaction, to make war on him, or to trust to the support of Gen. Changarnier, the commander of the army in Paris? Would it be expedient to effect a reconciliation of the two branches of the royal family, and to work boldly for a restoration? Such were the problems of the time, and the correspondence of M. de Barante well exhibits all the doubts, uncertainties, difficulties which kept the political world in a state of ferment.

# Correspondence.

## THE DECLINE IN TEACHING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your editorial upon the Decline of Teaching ought to arouse very general solicitude throughout the profession; it gives notable emphasis to the condition which some of us have perceived for several years, although, so far as I am aware, stress has not hitherto been laid upon it in any pub-

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lic way. Your statement of the facts implies, without directly asserting, both the magnitude of the evil and its causes. Possibly both of these should receive at the proper time and place more extended and exhaustive consideration.

The decline of teaching is found in elementary, secondary, and collegiate schools. In the lower schools it is due to the absurd importance which is given to pseudo-pedagogy. Child study, the new psychology, the curriculum-making craze—in fact, all the prominent aspects of present educational literature and thought—are directed entirely to the mechanics of teaching. They create the belief that teaching will be good and successful if the teacher has only at command a sufficient number of the various nostrums. The tendency of our educational literature, so far as it deals with the lower schools, is to draw the attention of teachers away from the fundamental principles of the profession. These are not to be summarized in any offhand way, but they deal with questions of character and aptitude on the part of the teacher; with regard to the student, they are absolutely centred on questions of discipline, using the term in its broad and true meaning.

The American teacher who receives occasionally in his classes a young American boy, trained in the average German and French school, never fails to observe the wonderful neatness of his work, the care and method in its preparation, and his absolute grasp of those topics which he assumes to know. The average American boy from the average American school shows all the vices which are the reverse of those virtues. Yet educational experts continue to search in the organization and mechanics of the French and German schools for the cause of their superiority over ours!

In the upper schools—high schools and colleges—the evil which has brought about the decline of teaching is an entirely different one. There is no evidence that the pseudo-pedagogy has won any hold on these men, except as subjects for wise admonitions to elementary teachers. The evil here is that original research has been confounded with true teaching. Original research is an independent profession, worthy of all honor and respect, but its processes are not in any essential or fundamental way those of education. We can never bring back to our colleges the nobler ideals of character and culture until we separate them from an ideal which is purely that of a trade or profession. We should have a very analogous confusion if our lawyers were to contend that education consisted in mastering the process and methods of the law. In so far as our colleges are converted into workshops where "the bounds of knowledge" are widened, their real and greater function becomes restricted if not forgotten.

FREDERICK WHITTON.

MICHIGAN MILITARY ACADEMY,
ORCHARD LAKE, March 12, 1900.

## THE RANGE OF ANIMAL FOLK-LORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I should like, with your permission, to reply to a few of the criticisms on my 'Animal and Plant Lore' contained in the *Nation* of March 8. The reviewer objects to the fact that citations are not made of the persons who are authorities for the various superstitions collected in the book. The reason why such references were not given is because, in a very large number of instances, it would have been wholly impossible to make them sufficiently definite to be valuable. An immense number of the superstitions collected were gathered from house servants and other people whose residence in any one spot during their adult life, was often measured by months rather than by years, and for whom it would be as impossible to give a permanent address as it would for a flying-squirrel or a robin. In other cases the information was communicated to me by careful observers and collectors, in very many instances members of the Folk-Lore Society, who did not give, with the items which they communicated, the exact addresses of the persons from whom the matter was obtained by them. In all such instances it would have put my correspondents to much additional trouble to give names and addresses of the persons from whom the matter was obtained. In an exceedingly large number of cases the material had been collected from people not now living, and a goodly proportion of my own collections consists of matter which was current in my childhood in the mouths of people long since deceased.

Another explanation is perhaps due, namely, as regards the statements made concerning the geographical range of the superstitions cited. Where a belief was recorded as being current in one or more specific localities, it was because the author had definite knowledge of its occurrence just there. Where the expression "General in the United States" was used, it not infrequently occurred that twenty, thirty, or more informants had communicated to me the same item from localities ranging all the way, perhaps, from New England to California; or, in other instances, correspondents who had travelled widely in the United States assured me that they had met these beliefs in most portions of the country which they had visited. In all instances where the distribution of a given belief seemed to be pretty extensive, but I was not sure of its occurrence in more than from four to ten somewhat widely separated States, I qualified the statement of its distribution by saying, "Somewhat general in the United States," or "Central States," etc., etc., as the case might be.

Very truly yours, FANNY D. BERGEN.

47 RAYMOND ST., NORTH CAMBRIDGE, MASS.,
March 12, 1900.

## COMMERCIAL COURSES AT MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to correct an error in your announcement of the so-called "commercial courses" at the University of Michigan. I refer to the omission of English from the list of required studies. Since one of the proposed courses is entitled "Preparation for Newspaper Work," the inclusion of English among the requirements has seemed to the faculty to be a matter of some importance. F. N. S.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, March 11, 1900.

## "ANOTHER."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: By no means satisfactory is the information regarding this common word, in certain of its constructions, which is furnished by the dictionaries.

Though its termination is comparatival, yet, primarily, as signifying 'one more,' 'a second,' it denoted addition, and, in the next place, unlikeness, diversity. Only at a relatively late period, that is to say; apparently in the first half of the sixteenth century, when *than* is found subjoined to it, did it take possession of its etymological inheritance.

As a language develops, its old concinnity of idiom, at any given time, is less acutely perceived and less nicely appreciated, by those of whom it is the mother-tongue, than it was by their predecessors. This fundamental linguistic fact is illustrated in the history of the phrase about to be discussed.

Appended to a host of words, *than*, to express comparison, had long been demanded, when, as has been said, our ancestors chose to include *another* in the same category. Owing to the influence of Latin, however, before, so far as has been observed, no more than a generation or two had elapsed, an equivalent of *another than* emerged, namely, *another from*. To this I return farther on.

Of *another from*, a synonym, from the first, of *different from*, it has been the fortune to have, at the bidding of a sense of euphony, a rival, though a feeble one, in *another to*, an expression which lexicographers have strangely slighted. Some quotations for it follow:

"A good Beliefe will now arme well, indeed; but, alas! that's quite *another* thing *to* this confident Audacity." Rev. John Gaule, *Select Cases of Conscience* (1646), p. 145.

"This nightly meditation was clean *another* thing *to* their nightly speculation." *Id.*, *Magastro-mancer* (1652), p. 8.

"In a Word, I am quite *another* Man *to* what I was." Addison (1714), *Spectator*, No. 556.

"She was so perfectly *another* thing *to* what she used to be." Defoe, *Colonel Jack* (1721), p. 206 (ed. 1840).

"Expence incurred in the common way of a man's living is quite *another* thing *to* an extortion of this sort." Frances Burney, *Cecilia* (1782), vol. i., p. 175 (ed. 1809).

"I was quite *another* sort of a thing *to* what I am now." Samuel J. Pratt, *Liberal Opinions* (1775, etc.), vol. iv., p. 83 (ed. 1783).

"She is quite *another* thing *to* what she was two years ago." Isaac Jackman, *All the World's a Stage* (1777), Act i., Scene ii.

"To see a gannet in Faroe is quite *another* thing *to* seeing a gannet on the Bass." Sir G. W. Dasent (1864), *Jest and Earnest* (1873), vol. i., p. 82.

"It would be quite *another* dance *to* catching fleas with gloves on." *Id.*, *Tales from the Fjeld* (1873), p. 7 (ed. 1874).

"Quite *another* thing *to* the way," etc. E. A. Freeman (1889), in *Life and Letters* (1895), vol ii., p. 394.

"To be treated in quite *another* way *to* that in which all other wares are treated." C. Kegan Paul, *William Godwin and his Friends* (1876), vol. ii., p. 68.

To return to *another from*, which Dr. Murray considers to be catachrestic, its antiquity and prevalence have escaped due notice. I have collected exemplifications of it from no fewer than forty-four authors. Of these, three belong to the sixteenth century, being Nicholas Udall, Meredith Hanmer, and Sir Philip Sidney; eleven to the seventeenth century, notably the Earl of Monmouth, Henry Hammond, Thomas Fuller, Glanvill, Samuel Pepys, and Henry More; nine to the eighteenth century, such as Dr. Johnson, Thomas Amory, Mrs. Frances Sheridan, Bp. Hurd, and Uvedale

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Price, and twenty-one to our own century, among whom are Sydney Smith, Lord Teignmouth, Landor, De Quincey, Christopher Wordsworth, the Duke of Somerset, Cardinal Newman, Bp. Samuel Wilberforce, Matthew Arnold, J. A. Froude, E. A. Freeman, and Sir G. W. Dasent. May not, then, *another from* by and by come to be deemed as correct as *another than?* F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, March 2, 1900.

P. S.—An error in my letter at p. 90, *ante*, has been kindly pointed out to me. I was mistaken as to the sense in which I supposed T. L. Peacock to use the verb *doubt*.

In p. 127, *ante*, col. 2, line 3 from bottom, read *phantomate* and *phantomation*.

## LITERATURE AND FLEAS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The aphorism of David Harum—already become famous, and which will probably be long quoted as an Americanism—"A reasonable amount of fleas is good for a dog—they keep him f'm broodin' on bein' a dog"—has light shed on it from an unexpected source, a scientific authority, though it is unlikely that Mr. Westcott ever read the passage on stimuli to energy from Galton's 'Inquiries into Human Faculty,' which I here quote:

"The stimuli may be of any description; the only important matter is that all the faculties should be kept working to prevent their perishing by disuse. If the faculties are few, very simple stimuli will suffice. Even that of fleas will go a long way. A dog is continually scratching himself, and a bird pluming itself, whenever they are not occupied with food, hunting, fighting, or love. In those blank times there is very little for them to attend to besides their varied cutaneous irritations. It is a matter of observation that well washed and combed domestic pets grow dull; they miss the stimulus of fleas. If animals did not prosper through the agency of their insect plagues, it seems probable that their races would long since have been so modified that their bodies should have ceased to afford a pasture-ground for parasites."

As to the range in nature of this benevolent (?) parasitism, Swift's observation is in point, that fleas

> "have smaller still to bite 'em;
> And so procced *ad infinitum*."

H. M. STANLEY.

LAKE FOREST UNIVERSITY LIBRARY,
March 12, 1900.

# Notes.

Truslove, Hanson & Comba announce 'The Imperial Russian Navy,' by Fred. T. Jane, with more than 150 illustrations; 'Among Horses in Russia,' by M. H. Hayes, with 60 photographic illustrations; and 'From the Alps to the Andes,' the autobiography of Mattias Zurbriggen, Mr. Fitzgerald's companion in the ascent of Aconcagua.

Further announcements by D. Appleton & Co. are 'The Individual: A Study of Life and Death,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler; 'Familiar Fish, and How to Catch Them,' by Eugene McCarthy; and 'The Story of the Alphabet,' by Edward Clodd.

Macmillan Co. will publish immediately 'The Epistles of the New Testament,' rendered into current and popular English by the Rev. Henry Hayman, D.D.; and the second volume of 'Old Testament Theology: The History of Hebrew Religion,' by Prof. Archibald Duff, whose theme is the Deuteronomic Reformation in the seventh century B. C.

From Messrs. Harper we are to have 'The Nicaragua Canal,' by W. E. Simmons; 'Our Presidents and How They are Made,' by Col. A. K. McClure; and 'The Story of the Boers,' an official presentation of their case, with numerous illustrations.

John Lane is about to issue 'Rudyard Kipling and his Work,' by Richard Le Gallienne, with 'Travels in England,' by the same writer; 'The Chronicle of a Cornish Garden,' by Harry Roberts; 'Birds of My Parish,' by E. Pollard; 'The Rhodesians: Sketches of South African Life'; 'Side-Lights on the Reign of Terror,' by Mlle. des Écherolles; 'All about Dogs,' by Charles Henry Lane, illustrated; 'What is Poetry?' by Edmond Holmes; and 'The Professor, and Other Poems,' by Arthur Christopher Benson.

Spring announcements by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. embrace 'The Mississippi Valley in the Civil War,' by John Fiske; 'The *Constitution*, and the Navy under Sail,' by Prof. Ira N. Hollis; 'The *Monitor*, and the Navy under Steam,' by Lieut. F. M. Bennett; 'The *Mayflower* and her Log,' by Dr. Azel Ames; 'A Critical History of the Evolution of Trinitarianism and its Outcome in the New Christology,' by Prof. Levi Leonard Paine; 'The Conception of Immortality,' the Ingersoll lecture for 1899, by Prof. Josiah Royce; 'The Light of Day: Religious Discussions and Criticisms from the Standpoint of a Naturalist,' by John Burroughs; 'Amos: An Essay in Exegesis,' by Prof. H. G. Mitchell; 'The Arts of Life,' by R. R. Bowker; 'Numbers and Losses in the Civil War in America, 1861-65,' by Thomas L. Livermore; 'The Woodpeckers,' by Mrs. Fannie Hardy Eckstrom, illustrated; 'Squirrels and Other Fur-Bearers,' by John Burroughs, and 'A School History of England,' by John N. Larned.

The Harper "Haworth Edition" of the Brontë sisters has reached vol. iv. with 'The Professor.' This posthumous volume, with its working up of material used to so much better advantage in 'Villette,' Mrs. Humphry Ward dismisses with a brief though appreciative preface. We observe that Mrs. Ward's estimate of the genius of Emily Brontë, in 'Wuthering Heights,' has called out remonstrances in England. Appeal has been taken back to Arnold and his "Haworth Churchyard."

Baedeker's 'Canada' ("with Newfoundland and an Excursion to Alaska"), compiled by Mr. Muirhead, who achieved so marked a success with his Baedeker's 'United States,' has just been revised in a second edition (Scribners). The changes for the Dominion at large could not be great, but the rise of the Klondike in importance has necessitated some new pages. No map, however, of this particular region on a sufficient scale has been attempted. This guide-book will commend itself to all tourists.

Our Paris correspondent, some two and a half years ago, reported upon M. Funck-Brentano's authoritative work on 'Legends of the Bastille.' This has now been translated, with Sardou's introduction, by George Maidment (London: Downey & Co.; New York: Scribners). The author's footnotes have been omitted, while the translator has supplied a few of his own. There is a view of the model of the old prison, and a contemporary portrait of Latude, whose career and escapes form a large part of the narrative. Here, too, the Man with the Iron Mask is unmasked. There is a too brief and unworkmanlike index.

Under the rather inappropriate title, 'The Puritan as a Colonist and Reformer,' Dr. Ezra Hoyt Byington has published a companion volume to his 'Puritan in England and New England' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). It is not, as one might infer, a comparative study of the colonizing ideals and methods of the Puritans, or of their peculiarities as reformers, that the author presents. It is rather a somewhat loosely connected group of essays. Of these, the first two sketch, in happy narrative style, the more salient facts of the history and institutions of the Pilgrim and Puritan colonies of New England, from their settlement to the establishment of the Provincial Charter of Massachusetts. To these essays the author has added three others, treating the life and missionary labors of John Eliot, Jonathan Edwards, and the Great Awakening; and, finally, attempting to estimate Shakspere's relation to the Puritan movement. All are agreeably written, and the essential outlines are skilfully presented; but the concluding paper is hardly germane to the general theme of the rest of the volume, and is its least valuable portion. The book, as a whole, is worthy of cordial commendation.

'Cook's Literary and Historical Map of London' (London: Thomas Cook & Son) is strongly backed and folded in covers for the pocket. It is rendered available by several lists and indexes, as, "Historical and Literary Landmarks," arranged alphabetically by personages—Addison, d'Angoulême, d'Arblay, etc., including Dickens for the houses in which he lived; but a whole section is given to "some places and houses referred to" by him. Relics of Old London, Old Churches, Historical Tablets, Palaces, Railway Stations, Restaurants, etc., are other rubrics; and there is a select list of streets for ready location upon the map.

In an interesting little pamphlet (Paris: Colin), entitled 'De l'Éducation moderne des jeunes filles,' M. Dugard discusses very fairly some of the most striking results produced in many young French girls by the conflict of modern ideas taught in state schools with the reactionary influences of home and social environment. According to him, this disagreement frequently leads towards almost incurable moral vacillation and weakening of character; while, on the other hand, self-assertion tends naturally to convert the youthful enthusiast into a troublesome *frondeuse*. M. Dugard touches but very gingerly on the fact, recently mentioned in more than one official report, that the ranks of social outcasts contain regrettably large numbers of *diplômées*. The remedy suggested in this pamphlet points to more deliberately effective organization of social life, which, by establishing closer relations between parents and teachers, might help to reduce the alleged antagonism of their respective opinions; but there is very little doubt that efforts in this direction would be met with counter-organization by those who deem it their sacred privilege to control and guide the family through the emotions of its women.

As a pendant and complement to 'Victor Hugo, le Poète,' there now appears 'Victor Hugo, le Philosophe,' from the pen of M. Ch.

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Renouvier (Paris: Colin). This work, evidently written under the influence of German thought, strives to find a synthetic philosophy in the scattered utterances of the poet on the ultimate questions of life; but, just because of this, it seems to introduce into a mass of incoherent utterances a principle of unity which their author probably never fully grasped. Further, such treatment implies the laying of stress on precisely those productions which are generally admitted to possess the weakest title to durability, namely, "Les Quatre Vents de l'Esprit," "Religion et Religions," "L'Âne," etc. It is perfectly true that Hugo himself gloried in being the expounder of all the general ideas that had won life in his time. Still, there is a great difference between the eloquent expression of vast truths or truisms and the systematic conception of the cosmos as a metaphysical whole. It must be added that the omission of Hugo's nebulous political speculations leaves his alleged philosophy in a state of incompleteness.

The Harvard Cercle Français not only performed an abridgment of Cyrano de Bergerac's comedy, "Le Pédant Joué," last year, but was the cause of the handsome publication of the accommodated text, with an introduction in which was discussed the question whether the play had ever been acted before (Boston: Jean de Pfeiffer). The conclusion was in the negative. The brochure was illustrated with a portrait of Cyrano and a scene from the third act, both from old plates. In like manner, the present month witnesses the production at Harvard of Goethe's "Iphigenie auf Tauris," by the Irving Place Theatre Company of New York, on behalf of a projected Germanic Museum at the University. This has led to a publication of Goethe's text face to face with Miss Anna Swanwick's translation, Prof. Kuno Francke furnishing a brief introduction analyzing the drama. We have thus another permanently valuable volume to mark the progress of the cultivation of modern languages at Harvard.

Those who read Hauptmann's "Die Versunkene Glocke" in the German edition, and recall the difficulty of the peculiar, if graceful, typography superadded to the dialect difficulty, will be glad to secure an edition of the play less comely but more clear just issued by Henry Holt & Co. An introduction, with welcome notes, is furnished by Thomas Stockham Baker of Yale. The prefixed bibliography is noticeably extensive, though not meant to be anything but selective.

'De Goeie Jo,' by G. O. Van Wijk, is a novel of Dutch life in Java. The story possesses little technical perfection; the plot is commonplace, and motives are not very profoundly developed. The work is something of an historical novel—indeed, this characteristic constitutes its chief claim to attention. It is a study of Dutch colonial life and methods of the present century, and the reader is introduced to the many evils of the Dutch system—the illicit trade and other frauds, the insecurity of life and property, the immorality, and the greed of gain which has always distinguished the colonial functionaries of the Dutch; men who were intent only upon the rapid acquirement of wealth and a speedy return to their native land. The different elements of the mixed population, Chinese, Arabs, natives, and half-breeds, are presented as typical characters; and the picture of the misery of the oppressed Javanese graphically supplements the data given in economic and ethnographical works. The novel is, in part, a study of the phenomena attendant upon the contact of two unequally advanced civilizations; the chief character being a half-breed, or sinjo, who displays, as a result of his birth and half-education, the most objectionable characteristics of both his European and his Javanese ancestry. Many of the methods and measures which brought the Dutch system into disrepute and failure, are presented in an interesting way.

The next number of the *American Historical Review* will contain, in its section devoted to "Documents," an interesting journal kept by Moses Austin during a journey from southwestern Virginia to Missouri in the winter of 1796-97. Among the body-articles an especial interest attaches to Prof. E. G. Bourne's paper on the history of the plan developed in 1847-48 for retaining all of Mexico, as a result of the Mexican war; and that of Prof. F. Wells Williams on "The Chinese Immigrants in the Farther East."

Three portraits arrest attention in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for March, viz., of the late John C. Ropes, the late Gen. Lawton, and M. Henri de Régnier, the third annual lecturer of the Hyde foundation of the Harvard Cercle Français. Three different but harmonious tributes to Mr. Ropes depict his character truly, while sketches of the career of Gen. Lawton and of the French poet, son-in-law to another French poet—José de Heredia—accompany their effigies also. The dedication of Phillips Brooks House forms part of the University chronicle, and there is the usual summary of President Eliot's annual report.

The principal articles in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number one, are upon the Danish Ingolf expedition, which, in 1896, investigated the specific gravity and temperature of the waters of the north Atlantic and its animal and vegetable life; and upon the so-called rising and sinking of the land in Samoa. There is further an account of the Russian Potanin's travels in western China in 1892-93, with a sketch of his eventful life. The census of the white inhabitants of German southwestern Africa shows that the Transvaal Boers number 637 out of a total of 2,872, and that they are decreasing. Maps of the separate districts indicate their settlements.

Paul Heyse, who on the 15th of March passed the line of three-score and ten, writes in the current *Rundschau* with rather striking unreserve about his boyhood years, his parents and relations. These reminiscences, together with those published in five previous instalments (October, 1899-February, 1900), which, chronologically, they ought to precede, are for the most part fascinating reading. Both at Berlin and at Munich, whither the young poet went in 1854 by invitation of King Maximilian, and where his home has been ever since, the literary and social circles in which he moved included many of the celebrities of the day, and what we learn concerning them is not the least interesting part of the reminiscences. There is also many a piece of *Kulturgeschichte* woven into this autobiography, sketches from life in the two capitals during the middle decades of the century. Still, the writer reserves for himself the central position throughout his story, which he carries to his thirty-fourth year (1864), which is well worth telling, and is told in a masterly way.

The change in the entrance requirements at Columbia College, allowing students to enter without Latin and receive their first instruction in the language in the college, suggests the possible transference in the more or less distant future of Latin and Greek from the preparatory schools to the curriculum of the college or university. Not that the present change at Columbia implies any such far-reaching purpose; it simply puts Latin and Greek on a par with French and German, the elements of which have long been taught in our higher institutions. But many other signs, changes actually made or merely suggested or debated, point in the same direction. The shifting of Greek from the gymnasium to the university was some years ago referred to by the eminent classical philologist Prof. Wilamowitz-Möllendorf, as a plan fraught with no serious consequences. Quite recently Prof. Steinmann, the geologist, in a pamphlet 'Über die Ausbildung der Studierenden der Mathematik und Naturwissenschaften für das höhere Lehramt' (Freiburg, 1899), advocates providing instruction in Latin and Greek *in the university* for students not sufficiently prepared in these subjects. And many others, like Prof. Bernheim of Greifswald, are showing an active interest in securing the benefits of university training for advanced and earnest students, even though their secondary instruction has not been along traditional lines.

The University of Grenoble, France, has just issued its prospectus for 1900, concerning the special courses, in the French language, organized there for the benefit of foreign students. The pamphlet is embellished with a view of the city, showing the solidly built quays of the river Isère in the foreground, and the beautiful snow-clad mountains of Dauphiny beyond; and this panorama should add something to the list of more serious inducements drawing students of language to Grenoble. The variety of valuable courses offered, the access to the libraries and museums of art and natural history, the mountaineering, and the famous resorts of many kinds near at hand, the moderate price of living, and many other advantages are dwelt upon. The "Cours de Vacances," or vacation courses, at that town would seem to be highly successful. They were established only two years ago, and are already followed by 110 students. The local "Comité de Patronage des Étudiants Étrangers" may be addressed at No. 4 Place de la Constitution.

The Boston Public Library is putting its lecture-hall to use for free evening courses of a literary, biographical, and bookish nature. Col. Higginson, J. L. Whitney (the present librarian in succession to Mr. Putnam), Lindsay Swift and Worthington C. Ford of the library staff, Rev. Jesse H. Jones, Rev. E. E. Hale, and William Everett are some of the March-April lecturers.

—The Rev. Walter Lloyd has written, and Philip Green, No. 5 Essex Street, London, has published, 'The Story of Protestant Dissent and English Unitarianism,' which, coming to hand almost simultaneously with the death of Dr. Martineau, has a special significance that is purely accidental, but is not to be escaped. For it is known to many that Dr. Martineau had a very tender feeling for the Presbyterian origins

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of the English Unitarian churches; and, while he objected to the name Unitarian as designating a sect (though frankly accepting it as expressive of his personal belief), he did not object to the name Presbyterian, contending that it had no doctrinal force, but merely indicated a form of church government. Not many years ago he worked up an elaborate scheme of Presbyterian organization for the Unitarian churches. Others besides Dr. Martineau have made much of the Presbyterian origins of the English Unitarian churches, notably Dr. John James Tayler in his once famous 'Retrospect of the Religious Life of England.' And now comes Mr. Lloyd and explodes this whole business of Presbyterian origins as a myth which has no justification in the history of English dissent. At least he attempts to do so, and he goes over the ground very carefully and makes a good show of arguments for his conclusion. Incidentally, he strips the Presbyterians of the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries of much of the liberal and heretical plumage with which they have been tricked out by Unitarian fancy, and exhibits them as no better (Dr. McGiffert's critics would say "worse") than Independents and Baptists. Baxter's unique position is indicated with nice discrimination; and the famous business of the "open trusts," of which many Unitarians, following Martineau and Tayler, have made a great deal, are proved to have implied no genial welcome to the advancing tide of heretical opinion.

—Mme. Blanc ("Th. Bentzon"), carrying on her mission of explaining the women of America to those of France, has assembled a series of studies of individuals and groups who seem to her typical of the country's development from the colonial period to the present day ('Femmes d'Amérique,' Paris: Colin & Cie.). She has confined herself chiefly to epitomizing a number of well-known memoirs and other documents, so that the book has little fresh matter to offer to American readers save the pleasant statement in various forms of Mme. Blanc's sympathy with our social institutions and temperament. As she has studied her subject on the spot, she falls into few of the errors which usually make the pages of foreign critics unintentionally amusing, but her choice of exemplars would not in every case seem to a native to be happy. If asked to name a typical American actress, we fancy few Americans would think of Anna Cora Mowatt, nor would Margaret Haugherty's career occur to most minds as the best illustration of what American women have accomplished in philanthropy. In general, the book is defective in its treatment of the contemporary situation, probably because it is easier to condense memoirs of the dead than to form independent appreciations of the living. It is written with the lucidity and lightness characteristic of the author's style.

—'The Scottish Jacobites,' by Thomas Newbigging (London: Gay & Bird), is in no sense a proclamation of that singular society, "The Legitimist Jacobite League of Great Britain and Ireland." There are still some persons who decorate the statue of Charles I. at Charing Cross with emblematic flowers on January 30 of every year, and maintain that the de-jure sovereign of England is Mary Theresa Henrietta Dorothea, Archduchess of Austria, Este, Modena, and wife of Prince Louis of Bavaria. They hold that the Hanoverians have no claim to the throne by the divine right of primogeniture, and can show a parliamentary title only. However, with vagaries of this sort Mr. Newbigging does not waste his time. His purpose is to sum up, within the compass of a brief essay, "the characteristic features of the Jacobite movements, their originating causes, and the effects produced by them, and also by the songs and music of the Stuart adherents both at the time of the Risings and afterwards." To his notice of such topics is also added a short account of the Highland campaigns which occurred between the "construed abdication" of James II. and the escape of Prince Charlie after Culloden. The leading motive of the book is a desire to vindicate the valor and sincerity of the clansmen against the slights which have been cast upon them by certain eminent historians, notably by Macaulay. The chapter entitled "Historians on the Jacobite Risings" contains a passing reference to Ray, Home, and Burton, but is really an onslaught on Macaulay for his disparaging allusions to the Highlanders and the Highlands. "He employs his brilliant, not to say dazzling, rhetoric to cover with opprobrium the adherents of the Stuarts in their earlier struggles, and present their motives and actions in the worst light. . . . He even goes out of his way to traduce the country of the Highlands, as well as the people." Mr. Newbigging's vindication of Highland scenery from the slights of Macaulay and his authorities, Burt and Goldsmith, is not without interest, but, before approaching the subject of mountain scenery as a whole, he should have made himself somewhat more familiar with the first two essays in Leslie Stephen's 'Playground of Europe.' This sketch of the Jacobites is very short indeed, and finds its justification in the reading habits of an age which demands that the chief facts shall be given it in the smallest compass and with the embellishment of illustrations. Those who are hazy about the difference between Jacobites and Jacobins will at least learn from Mr. Newbigging who the Jacobites were. For the rest, the book derives its chief value from its criticism of Scottish songs. It is beautifully printed, and the numerous portraits which it contains are well reproduced.

—The Baron de Vaux has published, through J. Rothschild, Paris, two luxurious-looking volumes, profusely illustrated, called 'Le Sport en France et à l'Étranger.' The work will no doubt be bought to lie on the centre-tables of many people interested in the subject of which it purports to treat, a good deal as the old Keepsakes and Books of Beauty used to do. But it will not long detain the public of general readers; still less will it appeal as a necessity to those who take their sport seriously. If we search it, for instance, for any account of the development of the taste for out-of-door sports in France, the introduction of contemporary football, baseball, and track games, none will be found. We shall probably get that when the newspaper accounts come over from the Olympian games which that genuine sportsman, founder of French prizes in American universities, Baron de Coubertin, is organizing for the coming Paris Exhibition. A likeness of the Baron, by the way, does not figure in this work, of which the sub-title, "Silhouettes Sportives," describes it best. It is a collection of such light and frothy sketches as appear in the French journals under the form of the *feuilleton*. Each "silhouette" is accompanied by a half-tone portrait. For the list of those included the *Almanach de Gotha* would seem to be the source of authority chiefly consulted, rather than any records of athletic championships. President Félix Faure comes first, then all the emperors and kings of Europe, then many of the very high nobility, and so on, tapering down to persons of both sexes who are really very good at fencing, wrestling, tennis, or riding to the hounds. Even the gentle, serious-minded Queen of Spain is included as an athlete, on the plea that she swims; but it is long since the bathing-beach of San Sebastian has seen this performance, if it ever has. An excuse is found for comprising several very pretty, fashionable women, like the Princess Eulalia, Lady Randolph Churchill, and Lina Thaulow (Mrs. Lind), in virtue of their skating. There is, we think, but one American portrayed in the book, and fortunately he has come out to good advantage. This is Mr. Charles de Kay, in his costume as President of the Berlin Fencing Club, which he founded recently while Consul-General of the United States at the German capital. Some of the tail-pieces in the second volume seem drawn after Bewick.

—The total solar eclipse of the 28th of next May is already well attacked by the astronomers. Sir Norman Lockyer has issued a second edition of his 'Recent and Forthcoming Eclipses' (1893 to 1905); a new edition of Mrs. Mabel Loomis Todd's 'Total Eclipses of the Sun' is just published by Little, Brown & Co., and two lesser works on eclipses are also offered. The coming eclipse will attract many expeditions to the field, the first to take up its station being the Lowell Expedition, sent out from Amherst, and which is already located at Tripoli in Barbary, in charge of Prof. David P. Todd. Mr. Percival Lowell, now in the south of France, joins the expedition subsequently. Proceeding westward in the order of the regions now chosen, Prof. Turner of Oxford will occupy a station in Algeria; the British Astronomical Association, which did such good work under Mr. Maunder's generalship in India two years ago, will be represented in the neighborhood of Algiers; Sir Norman Lockyer will, as in 1896 and 1898, lead a large party to Alicante, on the east coast of Spain; at Talavera, southwest of Madrid, the amateurs of Cook's tourist party will assemble. Count de la Baume Pluvinel of Paris also will occupy this region, as likewise M. Henri Deslandres of the Observatory of Meudon, Paris; and on the west coast of Portugal, where the duration of totality is the longest of all the land stations, the Astronomer Royal, Mr. Christie, will establish the official party of the Greenwich Observatory. Mr. John Evershed, who achieved very fine results with his battery of spectroscopes in 1898, will again be in the field, attempting to establish himself just within the edge of the shadow path rather than near its centre, and hoping thereby to analyze the light from one of the poles of the sun. Proceeding still farther west, the Atlantic Ocean consumes the best part of the track of this eclipse, which does not again touch land till the vicinity of Norfolk is reached. Thence it passes very nearly southwesterly, the eclipse being total at Raleigh and New Orleans, besides a host of

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lesser towns throughout the Carolinas, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana. The average length of the total phase in these localities is not far from 1m. 20s., and if skies are kindly the numerous expeditions cannot fail to secure results of high importance, as was the case in the American eclipses of 1869, 1878, and 1889. The Lick, Yerkes, Lowell, Flower, and Chabot Observatories, together with those at Cambridge, Washington, Princeton, Northfield, and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, are among the institutions already preparing their outfits for the highly specialized problems of eclipse researches. Weather indications of the past three years point to eastern Alabama and western Georgia as the regions of America least likely to cloud obscurations.

—By the death, in his seventy-fifth year, of Dr. Franz Heinrich Reusch, professor of theology in the University of Bonn, the Old Catholic movement loses one of its most learned supporters. A favorite disciple of Dr. von Döllinger, he was associated with him in the two solid volumes of the 'Geschichte der Moralstreitigkeiten in der römisch-katholischen Kirche'—a history of the development of Probabilism and the laxer moral theology—and soon afterwards (1890) he gathered and edited with loving care the 'Kleinere Schriften' of the elder scholar. It would occupy too much space to enumerate all Reusch's historico-polemical works, on Galileo, Luis de Leon, the Jesuits, etc., but no student of either the literary or religious history of Europe since the Reformation can afford to be without the crowning labor of his life, 'Der Index der verbotenen Bücher,' the two volumes of which appeared in 1883 and 1885. The long, dry catalogues of authors and books contained in the successive prohibitory and expurgatory indexes, when illuminated by Dr. Reusch's boundless store of learning, gathered from all quarters, became a living chronicle of the endless conflict between progress and obscurantism, crowded with curious details and enlivened with interesting episodes. He seems to have left unexplored no source which would throw light on the uses made of religious censorship and its results on the fate of its victims. Of late years Dr. Reusch's pen has been less active, though he has been a frequent contributor to the *Deutsche Merkur*—the mouthpiece of the Old Catholics. He leaves behind him few scholars whose loss will be more sincerely regretted.

## A GREAT AMERICAN DIPLOMATIST.

*Charles Francis Adams.* By his son, Charles Francis Adams. [American Statesmen.] Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1900.

Charles Francis Adams had a brief but extremely satisfactory public career. Excepting a few years in the Massachusetts Legislature, and an unsuccessful candidacy for the vice-presidency on the Free Soil ticket in 1848, his political life covered a period of but thirteen years. It seems still briefer when we think that it was almost entirely concerned with questions closely related to the civil war. Yet no general in the field, no member of the Cabinet, during those years, had harder tasks to perform or performed them more successfully. What was perhaps still rarer, Adams's abilities and usefulness were understood, appreciated, and never seriously brought into question. He was wise in his generation in that he kept a careful and frank diary from youth to old age; and he is fortunate historically, for he has a biographer of such independence, literary skill, and familiarity with the period, that the rich materials ready to his hand have been used to the best advantage, considering the limitations as to space.

The author modestly calls the present volume a sketch; but he takes so comprehensive a view of nearly all the leading questions in the relations between the United States and Great Britain, from 1861 to the time of the settlement of the *Alabama* claims, that the greater part of the book is more like a series of connected diplomatic essays than a biographical narrative. Many illustrations might be given showing how far the author is from being embarrassed by his family relation to his subject. He explains the inconsistency of his father's association with Van Buren on the Free Soil ticket in 1848. He makes it perfectly clear that the first Republican minister to the Court of St. James went abroad with an almost contemptuous opinion of Lincoln and much too high a one of Seward, and that these erroneous estimates were never fully corrected.

Every one familiar with the diplomatic correspondence of the United States in 1861 knows that many angry protests were made against Great Britain for recognizing as early as May 13 that a state of war existed between the Government at Washington and the one then at Montgomery. As a result of his own convictions, no less than of the instructions received from the Department of State, Adams had a large share of responsibility for this attitude. Whether right or wrong, it was necessary, as a warning, to prevent Lord John Russell from yielding to pro-Confederate influences. Our author calls special attention to the fact that it was fortunate for the United States that the proclamation of neutrality was issued so early as to compel Russell to take the defensive and be over-cautious thereafter. It is made evident that if a recognition of belligerency had been postponed until after the first battle of Bull Run, it would then have been accompanied with a recognition of Confederate independence.

Until recently it has been supposed that it was the skilful diplomacy of the Secretary of State that prevented European intervention. This opinion is not shown to have been entirely groundless, but it will have to be very much modified. Mr. Adams does not see all the influences acting upon Seward's mind, yet with great clearness and force he tells us how at three different times, if Seward's suggestions had been followed, a war would probably have been precipitated with Great Britain—which would have meant intervention and an alliance with the Confederacy. In a chapter entitled "Seward's Foreign War Panacea," a very striking contrast is drawn between the wise caution of the Minister to Great Britain and Seward's amazing hallucination, that a foreign war would arouse in the United States a spirit of nationality that would overcome all dangers, foreign and domestic. During the first few months of his secretaryship, Seward was intensely irritated whenever the British Government permitted anything to be done that was at all friendly to the Confederacy; and he had a dangerous tendency to make threatening protests which no haughty government could have received without resentment. On the other hand, Adams saw what was most important, and recorded in his diary these sentences, which disclose the secret of his successes:

"My duty here is, so far as I can do it honestly, to prevent the mutual irritation [between the governments of the United States and of Great Britain] from coming to a downright quarrel. It seems to me like throwing the game into the hands of the enemy. . . . If a conflict with a handful of slaveholding States is to bring us to [our present pass] what are we to do when we throw down the glove to all Europe?"

Although apparently with reluctance, the author has dealt Seward one of the two or three severest blows he has ever received. The strength of the great Secretary's diplomacy was manifested in the way French plots were met, and the manner in which dangers leading toward war with France were avoided. This is a field that Mr. Adams has no occasion to enter. All that is said is both true and unbiassed, but the account is of a few characteristics only.

Not the most valuable, but perhaps the most sprightly and interesting chapter in this sprightly and interesting book is the one called "A Bout with the Premier." Very few Northerners ever fully understood why Englishmen expressed such surprise and indignation at Gen. Butler's order declaring that the women of New Orleans "who insult any soldiers, are to be regarded and treated as common women plying their vocation." Our author explains how English customs led to an entire misconstruction of the meaning of these words, and how "the English simply did not understand what Americans said and had in mind." With fine sarcasm he ridicules the idea that women should not be treated according to their conduct:

"In the many accounts of a certain famous interview between Queen Louisa of Prussia and Napoleon, in October, 1806, it has never been suggested that her Majesty began by bearing herself towards the victor of Jena as if he were a Corsican dog whose mere presence was pollution; nor does Marbot, or any other writer of recollections of that period, anywhere mention that, after Austerlitz, high-born Viennese dames took occasion to empty the slops out of chamber windows at the moment when uniformed marshals of France were passing on the pavement below. In Spain, also, during the early years of the century, as in India more recently, it was not the custom for women of captured cities to demean themselves in presence of a victorious British soldiery with ostentatious contempt. On the contrary, they generally sought a severe seclusion, preferring for that purpose churches and other holy places, the sanctity of which, according to high military authority, did not always afford them an adequate protection. With the 'ladies' of the Confederacy it was altogether different" (p. 245).

The correspondence between Palmerston and Adams about this order excellently illustrates some traits of these two men. As with all true Jingoes, Palmerston's blood could "boil" in less time than it takes to strike a match. He had read the outburst of indignation in the English press, and doubtless expected that it would soon manifest itself in Parliament, where he could make political capital for himself out of an early disapproval of Butler's order. So he promptly sent to Adams a communication, marked confidential, in which he declared that he found it "difficult if not impossible to express adequately the disgust which must be excited in the mind of every honorable man." The

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note was contemptuous and practically insulting, throughout. Adams was amazed. Was it designed to start a quarrel? Palmerston was premier, but Russell had charge of foreign affairs; and then the mark of "confidential," and the very unofficial "My dear sir," both at the beginning and at the end of the note, were also signs of a private communication. There was even less reason for assuming that Palmerston meant to speak for himself only, with no ulterior purpose. The subject-matter was wholly public, and the personal relations between the two men were far from intimate. Feeling confident that the old fox had some political scheme in view, Adams resolved to make him define the capacity in which he was writing—"whether in any way officially between us, or purely as a private expression of sentiment between gentlemen." Adams also reported the matter to both Russell and Seward. In a less excited tone, Palmerston repeated much that he had written before, but did not answer Adams's question. Again the American Minister demanded an explanation, and with faultless expressions made it evident that the prime minister was to be caught whichever way he might explain his action. Under the seal of privacy, Palmerston answered with a sarcastic air that of course the communication was a public one; but he was careful to claim that he had not cast any offensive imputations upon the United States Government, and he ended by saying that that government had done itself honor in the way it had treated Butler. Old tricksters are more likely to deceive themselves than any one else. Adams closed the incident by a polite but effective statement that he now understood that the notes were official, but that Palmerston had withdrawn "the precipitate implications contained in your first one." Yet he concluded by informing the Premier, "I must hereafter, so long as I remain here in a public capacity, decline to entertain any similar correspondence."

If several of Adams's leading contentions with Lord John Russell had been summarized, and some of the striking passages had been quoted, it would have helped to make more conspicuous his matchless ability in a diplomatic argument. Aside from having a vigorous and logical mind, his temperament was almost perfectly suited to his tasks. When Russell was cool, Adams was just enough cooler to make the difference perceptible. When the British Secretary began to lose his temper, or there was danger of a break in friendly relations, the American Minister knew how to yield or to stop short of the last step; he was always bold, except where discretion was better than valor. After he had for many months been anxiously engaged in gathering and presenting evidence that Confederate war-ships were building in England, he heard that one of the invincible iron-clad rams was about to go to sea. Seward's instructions were clear and positive that, in such an event, diplomatic relations should be broken off. More than once Adams had followed his own judgment instead of his instructions. When Russell informed him that there was not evidence enough to warrant stopping the vessel, it looked as if the critical moment had come. But Adams remembered his duty "to prevent the mutual irritation from coming to a downright quarrel"; he made his solemn protest against the injustice of Great Britain's attitude, and, in regard to the meaning of letting the ram go forth from an English port, he wrote that famous sentence: "It would be superfluous in me to point out to your lordship that this is war," and then referred the whole case to Washington for final decision. This gave Russell impressive information as to the attitude of the United States, yet no direct threat was made, and diplomatic relations were maintained. Otherwise, it would not have been so easy for the British Secretary to change his mind and order the ship to be held.

The author's superior literary art is displayed by his method of grouping the leading facts so that his chapters have life and picturesqueness. He sees rivals as they were in reality—trying to outwit each other in the changing political game. His liberality can be judged from his favorable estimates of Russell (p. 175-76) and of Slidell (p. 325 ff.). The weak point in the book, as biography, is the lack of full particulars of the diplomatist's personal traits. Did he live in style? Was he fond of social life? Could he be witty, extravagant, entertaining, or was he serious, judicial, and unbending, even with a jovial company at a country-house? Had he no weaknesses, no strange illusions? Who were his heroes, and what the mainsprings of his life? Are we to think of him as marble almost perfectly carved, or as a man, both genial and wise, of whose friendship obstacles of time and space unfortunately deprived us? The character and value of Adams's public services are clearly defined, but the personal features and movements and manners of the man in flesh and blood are, after 1861, vague at best. In general, the biographer's breadth of view, candor, and direct and vivacious style are conspicuous.

## BYZANTINE CONSTANTINOPLE.

*Byzantine Constantinople:* The Walls of the City and Adjoining Historical Sites. By Alexander Van Millingen, M.A. With Maps, Plans, and Illustrations. London: John Murray; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899.

The publication of this book is one of the evidences of the interest in Byzantine history which has been aroused in late years. In Germany, that land of special students, a journal has been established devoted to the discussion of the history and antiquities of Constantinople and the Byzantine empire. A work of a character similar to that undertaken by this new journal in Germany has been carried on in Constantinople itself for a number of years by the Greek Literary Syllogos, which possesses a fine building of its own, with a library, in Pera. This Syllogos, to which belong not only native Greeks, but also many foreign scholars, publishes from time to time proceedings in which are recorded, among other things, the discoveries made in and about Constantinople. It is mainly to the influence of the Syllogos in stimulating interest among resident students and giving opportunities for discussion and interchange of views, that we owe most of the more important works of recent times on the antiquities and history of the Byzantine capital, such as Déthier's 'Sièges de Constantinople,' Mordtmann's 'Esquisse Topographique de Constantinople,' Strzygowski's 'Constantinople Ancienne et Moderne,' Pears's 'Fall of Constantinople,' Grosvenor's 'Constantinople,' and others.

The present work differs from the two last named in that it is intended not for the general reader, but for the critical student. In the preface, the author intimates that it is only the beginning of a larger work, in which he proposes to deal, in general, with the antiquities of "Byzantine or Roman Constantinople, with a view of making the events of which that city was the theatre more intelligible and vivid." No one, probably, is better equipped for this task than Prof. Van Millingen. He holds the chair of history at Robert College. His father, an Englishman, came to the East to fight for Greek independence. Later, when he had become a prominent physician in Constantinople, he continued to display the liveliest interest in Greek history and antiquities, and was instrumental in founding the Syllogos to foster those studies. Prof. Van Millingen is, therefore, a native of Constantinople, familiar with the city since boyhood, using Greek almost as a second mother-tongue, acquainted with Turkish, and at the same time trained in the methods of Occidental scholarship. Moreover, he has an enthusiasm for his subject, as the following extract will show:

"The city which preserved Greek learning, maintained Roman justice, sounded the depths of religious thought, and gave art new forms of beauty, was no mean city and had reason to be proud of her record. But never was she so grand as in her attitude towards the barbarous tribes and Oriental peoples which threatened her existence and sought to render European civilization impossible. Some of her foes—the Goths and the great Slavic race—she not only fought, but also gathered within the pale of civilized Christendom. With others, like the Huns, Persians, Saracens, Turks, she waged a relentless warfare, often achieving signal triumphs, sometimes worsted in the struggle, always contesting every inch of her ground, retarding for a thousand years the day of her fall, perishing sword in hand, and giving Western Europe, meantime, scope to become worthy to take from her dying hands the banner of the world's hope. This is service similar to that which has earned for Ancient Greece men's eternal gratitude, and has made Marathon, Thermopylæ, Salamis, Platæa, names which will never die. . . . The shield of the city in that long heroic contest was the Walls" (pp. 266, 267).

The first two chapters are devoted to a discussion of the limits of ancient Byzantium and the location of the land walls of Constantine's city. In this portion of the work dependence is placed, for the most part, on ancient writings, supported by evidence from topography. Very few remains of those two periods are in existence, so far as the walls of the city are concerned. From the Theodosian period onward the case is different. The landward walls, erected in the reign of Theodosius II., and many times repaired and added to since, still exist in a better state of preservation than the walls of any city in Europe. The southern wall of the city, on the Sea of Marmora, is also preserved in considerable sections. The northern wall, along the shore of the Golden Horn, has been almost entirely destroyed, but its line can still be traced, and some fragments remain. Commencing at the southern end of the Theodosian walls on the Sea of Marmora, Prof. Van Millingen proceeds, step by step, northward to the Golden Horn, eastward to Seraglio Point, and back along the Sea of Marmora to his point of starting, determining the date of the original construction of walls, towers, and moats, and of the various additions and reconstructions,

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the location of each gate and postern; and recording, in general, the most important historical events connected with the different portions of the wall, gates, etc. Then he gives two chapters to the harbors on the Sea of Marmora, and one to the Hebdomon Palace. There is, finally, a brief and very perfunctory chapter on the Anastasian walls, built at the end of the fifth or the beginning of the sixth century, forty miles from the city, and stretching from the Euxine to the Sea of Marmora. This outer line of fortifications has not yet been traced.

Prof. Van Millingen is extremely modest in his manner of presenting his material, referring constantly to former authorities, and to the discoveries of others, so that the casual reader scarcely realizes how much new and valuable material he himself has contributed and how many errors he has corrected. Following that notable authority in the field of Constantinople archæology, Dr. Paspates, who, in this matter, followed Gyllius, almost all recent writers identify the Tekfour Serai, at the junction of the Theodosian wall and the wall of Manuel Commenus, with the famous Hebdomon Palace. Prof. Van Millingen proves that Tekfour Serai represents in reality the palace of the Porphyrogenitus, erected by the Emperor Constantine VII. in the tenth century—an identification which corresponds, by the way, with local Greek tradition, according, to which that building is known as the Palace of Constantine. The Hebdomon Palace was actually situated at the modern village of Makrikeui, on the Sea of Marmora, some three miles beyond the Golden Gate, and five miles or thereabouts from Tekfour Serai.

Another error adopted by all recent writers is connected with the so-called Prison of Anemas. On the walls in front of the Blachernæ quarter there are conspicuous twin towers which "rise to a great height, and are supported along their base by a massive buttress, or counterfort, that stands 23 feet above the present ground-level, and projects from 19½ to 26 feet beyond the towers." The southerly of these two towers is commonly called the Tower of Angelus. The northerly is described in all guidebooks and pointed out to visitors as the Prison of Anemas. It was Dr. Paspates who discovered an entrance into the lower chambers of this northern tower, and from there found his way into similar chambers in the southern tower, and also into an extensive series of chambers in the adjoining wall of the city, beneath the castle and palace of Blachernæ. These chambers he supposed to be prison cells; the whole constituting the famous dungeon of Blachernæ, so dramatically described in Scott's 'Count Robert of Paris.' The northern tower he identified as the Tower of Anemas, first mentioned by Anna Comnena as the place of confinement of Anemas, the leader of a conspiracy to assassinate her father, the Emperor. It is, of course, disappointing to lose our prison, but Prof. Van Millingen shows conclusively that the supposed cells in the walls were only casemates, used, perhaps, like the "similar substructures below the Domus Gaiana in the palace of the Cæsars at Rome," for the great army of slaves, servants, freedmen, and guards who served the court in silence and almost in darkness, in the palace of the Constantinopolitan as in the palace of the Roman Cæsars. His own arguments and the evidence which he adduces seem to show that the twin towers constituted the Tower of Isaac Angelus, which was a sort of Belvedere of the Palace of Blachernæ, and that the tower of Anemas must have been one of the towers on the Heraclian wall, somewhat further northward; but, with a caution which he not infrequently carries to the point of excess, Prof. Van Millingen does not press these conclusions, but leaves the reader a confusing choice of possibilities, which, after what has preceded, seem improbable, to say the least, and form a most lame and unsatisfactory conclusion to a clear and cogent argument.

This excessive caution, which appears to arise from over-modesty and distrust of his own judgment, is one of the faults of the book. There is more justification for it in the discussion of the moat in front of the Theodosian walls. In this moat there is a series of brick dykes or dams, broad at the base and narrowing to an edge on the top, strongly buttressed on the lower side. The object of these structures in relation to the moat has been a subject of discussion. Some of them have been found to contain earthenware water-pipes, and others still carry water into the city, which is brought by underground conduits from the hills to the west. Dr. Paspates supposed that in case of a siege these dykes were broken, and by that means the moat flooded, while at other times they carried water across the moat into the city. Prof. Van Millingen cites, on the one hand, authorities to show that the moat was always full of water, and not merely at a time of siege; and, on the other hand, to show that the moat was a dry moat. He ventures upon no opinion of his own, nor even attempts to explain the apparent contradiction of eye-witnesses. He contents himself with the statement that it is "impossible, under present circumstances, to examine the moat thoroughly, or to explore the territory without the city to discover underground conduits, and thus settle the question at issue" (p. 57).

One of the standing problems of Constantinopolitan history and topography is the determination of the route by which Mahomet the conqueror carried his ships across the hills from the Bosphorus to the Golden Horn, in order to attack Constantinople in the rear, as it were. In opposition to Dr. Paspates and some of the best recent authorities, Prof. Van Millingen leans toward the route up the valley by the present Palace of Dolma Bagtche, and so across to Cassim Pasha. In his discussion of the harbors on the Sea of Marmora, Prof. Van Millingen furnishes much valuable new material for the student of archæology, and, with the exception, perhaps, of the Kontoscalion, as to which his conclusions are uncertain, he seems to have identified the sites of all the harbors known to have existed on the Marmora shore during the different periods of Byzantine history.

The book is distinctly a scholar's book. It presupposes a considerable acquaintance with the history and topography of Constantinople and with the literature on those subjects. Quotations in Greek, Latin, French, and Italian are numerous, and are rarely translated. Footnotes, referring to authorities, occur on almost every page, and it is clear that Prof. Van Millingen has used his authorities at first hand. It is to be regretted that he has not added a brief bibliography, giving in one place the principal authorities of which he has made use, and brief notes on their character and value. The index contains no names of authors. The illustrations are very numerous, consisting of photographs, cuts (several of the latter taken from the late Canon Curtiss's 'Broken Bits of Byzantium'), and maps. These last, which are especially valuable, were prepared under the direction of Prof. Van Millingen himself, but they, again, presuppose a certain familiarity with Constantinople, as does also the author's method of using them. The work is carefully published. Only on page 196 do we notice one slip, where the same saint's name is written in one line "Pantoleon," and five lines later "Panteleon." Also, on page 282, "transpired" is used in the sense of "occurred."

It is sincerely to be hoped that Prof. Van Millingen will carry out his plan of a more general work, on the topography and history of Constantinople. Possibly, in doing so, he may find the means of combining scholarly accuracy and popular interest, since the history of Constantinople is full of romantic and picturesque incidents, with which the archæologist may well illuminate his descriptions of churches, mosques, walls, gates, theatres, and streets.

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*Beatrice d'Este*, Duchess of Milan. 1475-1497. A Study of the Renaissance. By Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Henry Ady). London: J. M. Dent & Co. 1899.

The social life of the Renaissance in Italy is a subject which can always be discussed with profit, especially in cases where the discussion springs from so good a work of research as Mrs. Ady's 'Beatrice d'Este.' To what degree was the courtly society of the Italian states vicious and corrupt during the years 1475-1550? No one denies the existence of profligacy on a large scale; but was it overwhelming? Leaving men out of account, can we select any women who may be taken as typical representatives of the later Italian Renaissance; and if so, where shall we find them? Lucrezia Borgia and Bianca Capello have often been used for purposes of demonstration, and the former, even though comparatively rehabilitated, is not yet a very savory person—while the latter is quite impossible. Shall we look upon these two as proper examples of their sex and condition, or shall we call them exceptions and seek refuge in the purer society of Elisabetta Gonzaga and Isabella d'Este?

These are some of the questions which Mrs. Ady's book at once raises, and she answers them in two ways: first, by assuming a general attitude towards the problem already outlined, and secondly by portraying the figure of a lady who, while neither a monster nor a paragon of accomplishments, may well seem to resemble the average woman of rank more nearly than either the Cleopatras or the Minervas of the period do. Speaking at large, she considers that the immorality of the Renaissance has been much overdrawn. Every one hears the notorious scandal, while commonplace goodness attracts no notice. Accepting the view of Pastor, Mrs. Ady says:

"Virtue goes quietly on her way, while vice is noisy and uproarious; the criminal forces himself upon the public attention, while the honest man does his duty in silence and no one hears of him. This is especially the case with the women of the Renaissance. They had their faults and their weaknesses, but the great majority among

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them led pure and irreproachable lives, and trained their children in the paths of truth and duty.

The life of Beatrice d'Este was not one of unclouded bliss, but it reveals the joyousness which the Renaissance could give when all the external conditions were favorable. By emphasizing the disagreeable features which Mrs. Ady inclines to soften, a somewhat different effect might be produced by an equally accurate biographer; but, giving due weight to all her crosses, Beatrice had a great deal of innocent exhilaration, and she was not contaminated by what seems worst in her surroundings. The weeks, the months, and sometimes even the years (when conspiracy did not raise its head) might go by very smoothly at the capital of an Italian despot. Perhaps a lurking sense of insecure tenure lent keener zest to the days of prosperity. As for the accessories of pleasure, none were wanting at the court of Ferrara, where Beatrice passed her girlhood, or at the court of Milan, where Ludovico Sforza, "Il Moro," made her a duchess.

Mrs. Ady, if one can judge from the tone of several allusions, is a great admirer of the 'Cortegiano,' and her study will have the effect of making the kind of existence which Castiglione describes more real and animated than it otherwise would be to readers of that treatise. The dialogues of the 'Cortegiano,' though they will not be called dull by those who know anything of the Renaissance, are rather stately and formal, according to our present standards of sprightliness. They need for a gloss a detailed description of court life, not necessarily at Urbino, but at some centre or centres of equal importance with the capital of Guido Ubaldo. Mrs. Ady takes up Ferrara and Milan in full detail, besides frequently glancing at Mantua, Naples, and other prominent courts. We will go so far as to say that any one who would understand Castiglione should go first to this monograph rather than to Burckhardt or to Symonds. It is not so much broad historical generalization which is wanted here as personal details and local circumstance.

Beatrice d'Este was the second daughter of Ercole I., Duke of Ferrara, and Leonora of Arragon, herself the daughter of Ferrante, King of Naples. The pedigree of the Este family is a famous one, and need not be rehearsed. Of more importance at present is the cleverness of the women who in successive generations belonged to the house. Isabella, the elder sister of Beatrice, was an infant prodigy, and throughout a long life maintained her reputation of possessing the gifts and graces in fuller measure than any other princess of her age —in Italy or elsewhere. Beatrice had her share of quickness, but developed more slowly, and at the fulness of her youth was remarkable for her spirit and gayety rather than for her seriousness of mind or for her learning. Hunting became one of her chief amusements, and in the chase she showed a fearlessness which rose to the highest pitch in the face of imminent danger. Her daring, indeed, seems to have endeared her to her husband, where her kindness of disposition and her other charms might have failed.

The marriage of Ludovico Sforza with Beatrice d'Este had its root in political expediency, the match having been arranged long before the lady had reached a marriageable age. The character of the man who conducted the government of Milan in such a way as to efface his nephew, the titular duke, and who, after he had come into full possession of the Visconti-Sforza inheritance, brought the hated foreigner upon Italian soil, has, naturally, been attacked with much warmth. Mrs. Ady defends "Il Moro" from the charge of having poisoned Gian Galeazzo, and assumes the defence of his character, policy, and methods at many other points. His connection with Cecilia Gallerani before his marriage, she dismisses lightly, and baldly chronicles his attachment for Lucrezia Crivelli, afterwards. Her thesis is that he became and remained during several years a fond and indulgent husband. It is not love of paradox which leads Mrs. Ady to champion the extremely doubtful cause of Ludovico Sforza. It is, we believe, her love of the arts, and her appreciation of the interest which he took in that bright band of masters which had Leonardo da Vinci at its head.

The girlhood of Beatrice was full of happiness, for at Ferrara she had within her grasp everything which a young princess could desire, and judicious parents besides. At Milan she gained independence, trod a wider stage, and grew more familiar with the machinery of political ambition. Yet she did not lose her fresh enthusiasms or her charming simplicity. Let this letter to her mother, which she wrote not long after the birth of her first son, speak for itself:

"Most illustrious Madama mine, and dearest Mother. Your Highness must forgive my delay in writing to you. The reason was that every day I have been hoping the painter would bring me the portrait of Ercole, which my husband and I now send you by this post. And, I can assure you, he is much bigger than this picture would make him appear, for it is already more than a week since it was painted. But I do not send the measure of his height, because people here tell me if I measure him he will never grow. Or else I certainly would let you have it. And my lord and I, both of us, commend ourselves to your Highness, and I kiss your hand, my dearest mother.

"Your obedient servant and child,
"Beatrice Sfortia da Este,
"With *my own* hand.

"To the most illustrious Lady, my dearest Mother, Signora Duchessa di Ferrara."

This biographical sketch is not restricted to the incidents of family relations and court society. It shows in a hundred ways how thoroughly Renaissance life was steeped in classicism, it investigates the political aims of Ludovico, it enters upon the relations of Venice with the northern states of Italy, and it brings the French across the Alps. Beatrice had the good fortune to die before her husband lost his throne, and remained in popular memory the radiant queen of a golden age. Were there space at our disposal, we would gladly say more about Mrs. Ady's excellent book than we have done. It is to be hoped that she will write monographs on other phases of social life during the Italian Renaissance. Her knowledge of documents and her skilful use of detail could be used to advantage on the same line for a long time to come.

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*Temperate Chile:* A Progressive Spain. By W. Anderson Smith. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1899. 8vo, pp. x, 399. Map.

Chile is frequently mentioned as the most progressive country in South America. The fact that she actually possesses the best currency system in the Southern continent would be urged by business men as a conclusive substantiation of this claim. But she has neither the greatest educational institutions, nor the most notable scientific societies, nor yet the most brilliant literary artists of Latin America. In music and painting she is easily outdone in many quarters. She does display the commercial instinct and an aggressive national spirit. Though less conspicuous for achievement in the realm of law, she has produced a succession of astute diplomatists, who have known well how to protect the interests of their country. In what pertains to the material, practical side of life, both individual and national, she has demonstrated marked ability, but in general culture she cannot be assigned first place among her sister republics. We do not forget such names as Mora, Bello, Gay, Gorbea, and Gana, which are worthy of the praise they have won, but it is a striking fact that all but the last of these were of foreign birth and education. Chile has persistently sought aid from abroad in developing her country. She has invited thither learned men from all parts of the world; she has received them cordially, and liberally seconded their efforts in her behalf, and has accorded them unstinted honor. In this recognition of merit there is at least evidence of a national tendency which must bear good fruit in the end. She has also reached out after European colonists, especially to develop the well-wooded states south of the river Bio-Bio, in response to which there has been an important influx, at intervals, for many years of German, English, Scotch, and French settlers.

The importance of the book which Mr. W. Anderson Smith has written consists entirely in its account of the conditions under which these colonists are endeavoring to carve out success along a rainy coast. It is not a clear, succinct account. It does not furnish a well-prepared statement of facts and figures, but it presents an interminable series of pictures revealing the chief characteristics of the towns, harbors, rivers, the roads, settlements, and isolated farms, over the whole of this region which the Chilean Government is so desirous of colonizing. The kind of soil, the vegetation, the wild life, the weather, all are given in painful detail and with excessive reiteration. The intending colonist can thus obtain a graphic portrayal of just what he would be flung into, and need not be surprised at the mud to be floundered through, the vast forests of big trees to be cut down, the kila cane in which his cattle will elude him, and so on to the end of the list. To such persons the book is to be commended, and perhaps to them it will be all the more satisfactory because it is so utterly devoid of systematic arrangement. It is like the vivid account of a child who can relate all of his experiences, but cannot seize and bring out a single broad generalization.

We cannot perceive that the author possesses any qualifications for writing a book. His knowledge of English grammar and rhetoric is below that of the average high-school student. We might forgive an occasional slip, a misused word, or a jumbled sentence, but, when such offences occur persistently, we can only say that the man is lacking in the fundamental training for au-

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thorship. It is enough to cite the continual use of "wooding" for woodland, and "amissing" for amiss, which are but examples of many errors.

There is a ten-page chapter on "Remarkable Progress," one of twelve pages on the "Social Condition of the People," and a few others whose captions import that the book is a study, which it in no sense is. Like many travellers, the author has picked up ready-made from the foreign colony its estimate of the country and the people, though he does admit that the gringo is not precisely an angel among devils. No deeper than this is one able to see into Chilean life through the pages of 'Temperate Chile.'

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*Cyclopedia of American Horticulture:* Comprising suggestions for cultivation of horticultural plants, descriptions of the species of fruits, vegetables, flowers, and ornamental plants sold in the United States and Canada, together with geographical and biographical sketches. By L. H. Bailey, Professor of Horticulture in Cornell University, assisted by Wilhelm Miller, Associate Edi' and many expert cultivators and bo.anists. Illustrated with over two thousand original engravings. In four volumes. A-D. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1900.

For this *fin-de-siècle* dictionary, Prof. Bailey has long been preparing himself. As he says in his preface, it has been his dream, for years, to close the century with a comprehensive index to American Horticulture. To the accumulation of material for this task, he set himself seriously a good while ago, and called to his aid a large corps of collaborators, both with pen and pencil, who have, under his direction, brought together an enormous mass of trustworthy information. Prof. Bailey himself assumed the hardest part of the work, namely, keeping things in their proper proportions and perspective. He and the assistant editor appear to have performed this difficult work exceedingly well. Besides this severe editorial labor, Prof. Bailey has given much energy to the preparation of occasional contributions to the text itself.

If our readers will glance at the nature of the task assumed by the projectors of this enterprise, they will be struck by the peculiar character of the difficulties to be encountered by the editors. In the first place, the range of subjects is almost world-wide, embracing plants useful and plants ornamental, in their innumerable varieties. Obviously they cannot all receive separate consideration, for some of these varietal forms are even now on their very last legs, so to speak, and have only the most insecure hold on life, whereas others are just coming into prominence as competitors for public favor. To discriminate between the worthy and the unworthy is indeed difficult, and in some cases impossible. Moreover, many of these varietal forms are the results of crossings in nature or by the hand of art, and the details of their parentage are not at all clear. It is easy to say that, in the descriptions, varieties (however they have arisen) are to be ignored; but, in a work like this, they constitute a large part of the very reason for which it exists. Although Prof. Bailey says in his preface that descriptions of varieties are not included, they have been included, and most wisely, as, for instance, in the Begonias, where their lack would have been sadly felt.

Good judgment has been shown by conservatism in the matter of nomenclature. We have here a work which every ambitious gardener will wish to place on his shelf beside his Nicholson and his Loudon, and for such users of it a too advanced nomenclature would have been confusing to the last degree. With the safe names here given, there is little liability to serious perplexity. It is becoming evident that there is a growing impatience with much of the controversy concerning revision of names of organisms, whether plants or animals. Those investigators who are busied with the ecologic aspects of organisms—that is, those who are devoting their attention to the relations which these organisms bear to their surroundings—and also those who are chiefly concerned with the applications of plants to the arts of agriculture, horticulture, and so on, care for names of the organisms under examination only so far as these aid in recognition and identification. To introduce unnecessary confusion is a serious blunder. Prof. Bailey has avoided the risk of confusion. In short, in range, treatment, and editing, the Cyclopædia appears to be emphatically useful. Prof. Bailey deserves high credit for the admirable plan of it and for the faithfulness with which he has carried it out.

The size and character of type selected are good; but part of the presswork in the copy under review is poor. The cuts are original, and show in most cases that they are faithful studies; but here, too, the printing is sometimes poor and unsatisfactory. It is to be regretted that the publishers should not have devoted more care to the mechanical execution of a work which is worthy of ranking by the side of the Century Dictionary.

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*Clark University, 1889-1899.* Decennial Celebration. [Edited by W. E. Story and L. N. Wilson.] Worcester, Mass.: Printed for the University. 1899. Pp. vi, 566.

University celebrations may mean very different things. They may be merely events, to be lived through with blazoning of addresses and conferring of degrees; they may be advertisements to the general public, or appeals to the smaller circle of alumni; they may be times when, in the old-fashioned way, business is suspended for stock-taking, for a review of work done and an ordering of plans in the light of ideals still to be attained. The Clark Decennial cannot be charged with narrowness of conception. Its memorial volume includes elegant extracts from congratulatory letters, and records the awards of honorary degrees to distinguished visitors. President Hall's address and the reports of departments breathe an atmosphere of dignified poverty; and the historical sketch, the address, and the lists of degrees conferred and papers published during the decade lay the past and present and expected future of the University before the reader's eye.

Interesting as all this is, it is not novel; not even the poverty. But there are two things in the book that justify the remark of an eminent guest: "You have done something original, and succeeded perfectly." The first is, that the celebration was evidently planned and carried out as an object-lesson in the methods and aims of founder, trustees, and faculty; so that we might suppose the ordinary work of the departments to be going on, only with greater brilliancy and a wider reach. The second is, that the resolve was taken to publish a financial apologia, in the form of a full treasurer's report. The academic public knows something of the Chicago hegira of seven years ago, which carried off nearly half of the University staff, and has guessed at the "drop in income almost in the same proportion." Here we have the details, so far as details may be published without involving persons; here we have a tribute to the wise and consistent attitude of the board of trustees in a grave crisis; and here we have the welcome assurance from President Hall that "the pain of it all has faded; the glad hand has been extended and accepted . . . ; the incident may be considered closed."

Clark University was founded with the view "of transplanting to a new field part of the spirit of the Johns Hopkins University." "We propose placing" the benefits and advantages of a university, says the founder's opening speech, "at the service of those who from time to time seek, in good faith and honesty of purpose, to pursue the study of science in its purity, and to engage in scientific research and investigation." The University was not to be a place to which the good people of Worcester might send their sons and daughters for an education; not a college, not a professional school; but a place where competent men, in a leisurely environment and with entire freedom from pecuniary embarrassment, might do such work as it seemed good to them to do. We remember that Helmholtz, when all the world came on his seventieth birthday to acclaim him as a benefactor of the race, remarked that he was very sorry, but he had not thought of the race; he had done things because they amused him. This is the spirit in which Clark University opened its doors, and the spirit in which it celebrates its tenth birthday. Men of renown in science are invited to cross the ocean, and to pay homage of new ideas at the throne of science —"the realization of an ideal unattainable in Germany," one of them calls it—and, in general, to show themselves as ensamples of scientific living. So Picard comes, and lectures on mathematics, and Boltzmann on mechanics, and Ramón y Cajal on neurology, and Mosso on psychophysics, and Forel on his two favorite themes, ants and hypnotism. These lectures, and the counterfeit presentments of the men who gave them, are to be found in the decennial volume.

How far has Clark University lived up to these scientific ideals? There have been struggle and anxiety, and much pressure from without; but in founder, board of control, and president, there has been no shadow of turning. The splendid work of the library, and of the departments of mathematics and psychology, shows what the staff can accomplish if material aid is but forthcoming. As for the students, it is too early to pass a judgment. It may be that, on the score of training, even the best of our college graduates would be better placed in the graduate school of a large institution than in these groves of academe, where they may saunter by twos and threes toward "the choicest of all degrees, the doctorate of philosophy." Nature does not sprinkle every decade with

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geniuses. Nevertheless, a corner should be kept free for the genius when he comes; and if the University had not done the good work with students that it has, if it had had no students, but had simply waited and inquired and published on its own behalf, it would still be one of the nation's most precious possessions.

But how far has the nation lived up to Clark University? President Hall's address rings cheerily and confidently, but we miss one note that should be heard from it. From first to last there is no hint of gift or promise of gift, of endowment or bequest. "I do not doubt for a moment," writes Senator Hoar, "that the time will come when our endowments will enable us to maintain in the entire circle of university education the position which we have taken and hold with regard to a few subjects." May the time come quickly, and the "university for universities" raise its head among the bravest! For "the best of all uses of public benefactions is, not for charity to the poor or even the sick and defective, . . . not for lower education or religion, . . . but rather for affording the very best opportunities for the highest possible training of the very best minds in universities—because in training these the whole work of church, state, school, and charity . . . is raised to a higher level, and in this service all other causes are at the same time best advanced."

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*Through Unexplored Asia.* By William Jameson Reid. Illustrated. Boston: Dana Estes & Co. Maps. Pp. 499. 8vo.

Fictitious narratives of travels constitute a department of literature which has had numerous representatives from the earliest times. They are largely mere *jeux d'esprit*, written without any intention of deceiving the reader. One of the earliest of these writers, Lucian of Samosata, says frankly that the only truth in his 'Veræ Historiæ,' a kind of classic 'Gulliver's Travels' written to ridicule the 'Odyssey' among other works, is when he asserts that he is lying. A curious collection of these plays of the fantasy is M. Garnier's 'Voyages Imaginaires,' published near the close of the last century, in which are to be found Sterne's 'Sentimental Journey' and Cyrano de Bergerac's 'Voyage to the Moon.' In a few instances, however, the imaginative character of the story told is studiously concealed, the writer either exaggerating simple incidents of a real journey until all semblance of the truth is lost, or pretending to have travelled in a region which he has never visited.

It is with this latter class that we are reluctantly compelled, solely from the internal evidence of his narrative, to place the author of 'Unexplored Asia.' Mr. Reid says that, with one white companion and forty natives, he ascended the Yangtse, in canoes, from a border station in western China nearly to its source in the interior of Tibet, his story abruptly closing with an account of his arrival at Charing Nor on January 1, 1895, after an overland journey of a hundred miles. In other words, he says that he navigated a stream for some two thousand miles, mostly in a mountain region, against the current, from an altitude of 1,000 feet to 14,600 feet—that is, twice the height of the source of the Yellowstone or the Colorado, in about seven months of actual travelling. He acknowledges the necessity of numerous portages, but makes light of their difficulties. On the 27th of February the first rapids were encountered, and the "flotilla" of canoes had to be carried "along the river bank for six miles before they could be launched again, only to be forced ashore once more on the 29th [of February, 1894], by the second line of rapids. After cutting brushwood, and laying it over a path three miles in length we crossed. . . . With these difficulties surmounted, we were able to paddle with comparative ease to Lo Tung Chau." This was on the same day, for he goes on to say "on the 30th [of February!], after ten hours' poling, we were swept by a counter current" (p. 80). The author does not fully appreciate what it means for forty-two men to carry canoes, bales of cloth, ammunition, supplies, and camp baggage over a portage of three miles, to say nothing of the trifling preparatory labor of cutting and laying brushwood over the entire distance.

To the difficulties of navigating a mountain river were added the obstacles presented by hostile natives. We have noted half-a-dozen conflicts with loss of life in the forcing a landing or defending a camp. On one occasion "the open space beyond our shelter," the author asserts, "was covered with dead bodies, while four of our own brave fellows had been killed" (p. 403). On another occasion, after pouring "a withering fire into the closely huddled mass . . . and setting fire to the village in several places, we returned to our encampment" (p. 61). It is remarkable, to say the least, that the Chinese officials should have been apparently unaware of or indifferent to this slaughter of natives by an expedition travelling under "governmental sanction."

In comparison with these formidable obstacles of rapids and hostile natives, the difficulty of travelling "without interpreters" in a land where there is a multiplicity of languages and dialects, is trivial. The author naïvely remarks that the delay of three days at one place "was well utilized in familiarizing ourselves with the language and characteristics of the inhabitants" (p. 79). This seems to have sufficed for the whole journey, notwithstanding that in one "little village of half a hundred souls . . . no less than ten different dialects, in fact amounting to ten different languages, were in constant use" (p. 410). Long conversations were carried on with friendly natives throughout the journey, and the information gathered is scrupulously recorded in the volume and upon the accompanying route map; as, for instance, "Dzrik tribes reported to be hostile and bloodthirsty pagans living in tents and caves," and "From native reports this plateau stated to contain evidences of an ancient civilization."

We may add that we have not detected the slightest trace of individuality in Mr. Reid's references to his companions during at least two years' wanderings. Of the alleged head of the expedition we know little more than that "Burton, my old comrade in arms, the sturdy veteran who, but a few short months before, had pressed through the heart of the dark continent, and penetrated the impregnable fastnesses of Afghanistan and Thibet [as nonchalantly said as if he were referring to a trip from London to Cairo], . . . asked me to accompany him" (p. 2).

On comparing Mr. Reid's statements with standard works on China, we are confronted at the outset with an insurmountable obstacle to a belief in his truthfulness. He asserts that his explorations began at "Luipo, the little border station marking the confines of known China [on his map, latitude 29 degrees 30 minutes, longitude 104 degrees]." In a month's time Suchow was reached, the "village" to which they set fire after killing some of the inhabitants. On his map it is placed on the right bank of the Yangtse, at the confluence of the Min, an insignificant stream, flowing from the south. It needed less than half an hour's investigation to discover that this unknown region has been traversed repeatedly and carefully mapped by Europeans. The village of Suchow is said by Blakiston, who visited it in 1861, to have walls two miles round, and the *Times Gazeteer* describes it as "the great centre of trade in southern Süchwan with Yünnan, . . . 64,000 registered houses." The Min is the largest tributary of the Yangtse, being regarded by the Chinese as the main stream. It is three-quarters of a mile wide at its mouth, and flows from the *north*, rising in Tibet, through one of the richest of the Chinese provinces, thronged with a peaceful and industrious people, largely engaged in mining coal and cultivating tea for export. A part of this is described on Mr. Reid's map as "well-wooded country. Inhabitants reported by river natives as being very hostile and bloodthirsty brigands."

But it would be a mere waste of time and pains to follow him further into the less-known regions of the upper river. The book is without interest, except as a curiosity of literature. The author lacks the literary skill and requisite imagination to give his narrative an entertaining and graphic form. The most exciting incidents—particularly the sacrifice in the cave, evidently intended to be a blood-curdling description of a frightful tragedy—only provoke a half-mournful smile. It may be well, in closing, to call the attention of geographers to the appropriate testimonial of the author to his publisher in naming on his map the mountain chain in Tibet, on the right bank of the River Yangtse, north of latitude 32 degrees, "Estes Mountains."

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*Old Colonial Houses of the Cape of Good Hope.* Illustrated and Described by Alys Fane Trotter. With a Chapter on the Origin of Old Cape Architecture, by Herbert Baker, A.R.I.B.A. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900.

It seems odd to Americans to find their own title for buildings which to them are ancient, appropriated to buildings of another British dependency. In this case, the region being still a colony, the significance of the name given to the early architecture lies entirely in the adjective "old," for the buildings enumerated in this book belong to the time of the Dutch proprietorship, before Great Britain seized the Dutch possessions of the Cape of Good Hope. One of the buildings mentioned and partly described belongs to that famous estate of Constantia which gave its name to the most popular of all the wines of "the Cape," as is set forth in the lines of Tom Moore's poem:

> ——"when full to the throttle
> We lads had begun our dessert with a bottle
> Of neat old Constantia."

That wine was as well known as Sherry at a time not so remote in the history of

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wine-drinking in England, and, indeed, throughout northwestern Europe. The estate of Constantia was established, as the text sets forth, in 1685, "by the great building governor, Simon van der Stel." Besides the three plates relating to it, one of which is a photograph and the other two are apparently lithographic prints, there is one text illustration and a large general plan opposite page 3 of the text. Another estate, almost a rival to Constantia in importance, is that once known as Vergelegen; but of this the more important buildings, at least those more interesting in an architectural sense, seem to have been destroyed and replaced by simpler constructions.

A number of other farms are illustrated in the same way, and there are also house buildings in considerable numbers, one of which is "the Castle" at Cape Town. These buildings succeed one another almost continuously from the middle of the seventeenth century until 1800 or thereabouts, and they are nearly all of the same general character. What that character is would be guessed by any one who might have become familiar with the town houses of the Netherlands erected during the same epoch, or only a little earlier. Just as, in the United States, the buildings of 1680 were copied in 1700, with such changes as the different material made necessary, so in the possessions of the Dutch their native architecture was faithfully reproduced. One who may have visited a Dutch colony, such as the seaport of Willemstad, will have seen a quarter of old Amsterdam faithfully reproduced. So, in the semi-tropical lands of southernmost Africa, the marked characteristics of the Dutch town-halls reappeared, but stripped of the more graceful sculptured ornaments, and presented without that controlling good taste which the older and more truly civilized community retained. There was no older and purer building near Cape Town to check the fantastic vagaries of the native builder; no tradition which was sufficiently close and strong to have its inevitable result of wholesome restraint.

The plates, thirty-four in number, of the thin quarto before us are extremely uneven in merit. Some are very tolerable prints by photographic process, and others are drawn in what is apparently a sufficiently faithful outline rendering, although unskilful, and the work of a much interested and enthusiastic beginner in representative art rather than a master. The oddest pictures are, however, those which are drawn completely with light and shade in lithograph, and which resemble nothing so much as the drawings of the weaker members of an old-fashioned "drawing-school" when all the pupils alike had to make facsimiles as nearly as they could of lithographs prepared for the purpose. The reader will observe that this slightness and inefficiency of artistic process does not imply a lack of thoroughness, or an inaccuracy in the drawings; the design is never of such refinement that a beginner who is minded to be faithful might not follow it with considerable accuracy, nor is the detail itself of very great importance. The exact curves of the "fractable," now convex, now concave, are never of sufficient importance to cause much regret that the illustrator's pencil has not been guided by the highest skill. The large single pictures measure about seven by nine inches, and some of the plates are occupied by two or more smaller illustrations.

There have been several recent contributions to English periodicals in which the same little-known architectural world has been partly described, but this is the first permanent publication devoted to it which has come our way.

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*The Teaching of Elementary Mathematics.* By David Eugene Smith. [Teachers' Professional Library.] Macmillan.

This attractive-looking volume makes pleasant reading, too, for it contains many a curiosity. A further merit is that it directs its reader to many books well worth his examination, although others of the greatest importance are overlooked. Most of the recommendations of the writer are well enough; but they are, on the whole, trivial. Vulgar arithmetic is, after reading and writing, unquestionably the most practically important subject taught in the schools. For the immense majority of scholars, it would conduce far more to their success in life to be good arithmeticians and bad spellers than good spellers and bad arithmeticians. The effort of the schools should, therefore, be largely concentrated upon making practical cipherers, at any rate, in the teaching of arithmetic. Yet, having looked over forty or fifty of the arithmetics in vogue, we are in a condition to say that pupils never are made really skilful at figures, and Mr. Smith betrays the fact that he, like the other pedagogists, is not himself a master of this low but necessary art. He discourses about trifling matters, and neglects most of those that are really weighty from a practical point of view.

About teaching geometry, too, he seems to us to be quite at sea. All that is of direct practical importance in the geometry usually taught might be put into a nutshell. But it is an indispensable preliminary to mathematical reading, and has always been acknowledged to be of great value as a mental discipline. If geometry were properly taught, it would train and strengthen a number of faculties: first, an important species of imagination; second, ratiocinative invention; third, logical precision of statement; and, most important by far of all, the power of generalization. But, to those ends, it is requisite that other branches should be taught than merely metrical, or ordinary, geometry—branches not essentially less elementary, but rather more so.

That Mr. Smith should have any notion of the educational treasures of topical geometry is more than we could expect. But we should think that a teacher from whose mouth the names of Desargues and Steiner and Von Staudt drop quite glibly (though we notice that the more available book of Cremona passes unmentioned) might recognize that even projective geometry is more fundamental and nearer the beginning of the matter than metrics, and that at least so much of it as is involved in perspective could advantageously be taught before attacking the somewhat artificial, and therefore confusing, logic of Euclid or Legendre. But even within the old, traditional limits we find nothing very useful in these chapters.

In regard to algebra, it is not easy to go quite wrong, owing to the perfection of the science. But there is here no symptom of a power of inculcating a real comprehension of the methods of analysis. As to the author's objection to applied problems of algebra, we must emphatically dissent. He quotes the dicta of some English mathematicians; but these are entirely misunderstood unless we are aware to how great an extreme this sort of thing has been carried in England, and that in reference to higher parts of mathematics. In moderation, it is now generally recognized by Continental mathematicians that the English practice is right. Besides, we are at present speaking only of the instruction of school-boys; and, in our opinion, considered simply as logical exercises, those practical problems that Mr. Smith contemns are most useful in training the power of disentangling a state of things.

The volume has an introduction by the editor in three pages, of which two are devoted to the logic of mathematics. We shall not imitate his brevity by undertaking to say here what we think of his views, because to do so might smack of superficiality.

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*A Manual of Historic Ornament*, Treating upon the Evolution, Tradition, and Development of Architecture and Other Applied Arts. Prepared for the Use of Students and Craftsmen. By Richard Glazier, Associate of the Royal Institute of British Architects, etc. With 470 illustrations by the Author. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900. Pp. iii, 136.

This book, though called a manual of ornament, seems to aspire to the rank of a history of decorative art, including even Roman architecture and an analysis of Gothic building, which latter the author looks at chiefly through an Englishman's eyes. Undoubtedly the whole history of ornament cannot be written without a history of the constructional elements out of which it rose, or to which it adapts itself; but a manual as small as this has not room for everything, and the writer of such a book must really be content to deal with one branch of his subject. The space which he greatly needs for the development of the comparison between one and another form of ornament existing contemporaneously or nearly akin, is taken up by an account too cursory to be of any value, with small and inadequate illustrations of architectural masses and plans of important buildings. When, for Byzantine art, one page only can be given to the text and another to an illustrative plate, it seems unwise to use one-quarter of the text-page for plans of S. Sophia and S. Mark of Venice. Granted that Byzantine ornamentation can never be thoroughly understood unless the way in which it is applied to the vaults and pillars of those two churches is also perfectly understood, it remains true that two pages will not suffice to give a thorough understanding of it, and that the ornamentation, taken by itself, is all that should have been attempted.

We are driven, therefore, to accept the book as an interesting scrap-book of examples not badly drawn, presented in a way not ill calculated to explain their significance, and accompanied by a text sufficiently intelligent to make the little pictures more useful. There is one fault, however, common to such handbooks, from which this one cannot be said to escape—the very brevity of treatment has caused a positiveness of statement which is continually misleading.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barnes, C. R. Outlines in Plant Life. Henry Holt & Co.
Barry, J. D. Julia Marlowe. Boston: Richard G. Badger & Co.
Champney, Mrs. E. F. Love's Dream; or, Did He Mean to Wrong Her? J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co. $1.
Chapman, J. J. Practical Agitation. Scribners. $1.25.
Daskam, Josephine D. Smith College Stories. Scribners. $1.50.
Edwards, W. H. Shaksper not Shakespeare. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. $2.
Grandgent, Prof. C. H. The Essentials of French Grammar. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.
Holbrook, R. Boys and Men: A Story of Life at Yale. Scribners. $1.25.
Howe, E. G. Advanced Elementary Science: A Manual of Inductive Elementary Work. Appletons. Part II. $1.50.
Huntington, Bishop F. D. Personal Religious Life in the Ministry and in Ministering Women. Thomas Whittaker. 75c.
Jaggar, Rev. T. A. The Personality of Truth. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Johnston, Prof. H. P. The Storming of Stony Point on the Hudson. James T. White & Co.
Locke, W. J. The White Dove. John Lane.
Lorimer, Norma. Mirry-Ann: A Manx Story. Appletons. $1.
McMaster, J. B. A History of the People of the United States from the Revolution to the Civil War. 1821-1830. Appletons. Vol. V. $2.50.
Müller, A. von. Der Krieg in Süd-Afrika. Lemcke & Buechner.
O'Neill, Moira. Songs of the Glens of Antrim. Macmillan. $1.
Painter, Prof. F. V. N. A History of English Literature. Boston: Sibley & Ducker.
Pearson, Prof. K. The Grammar of Science. New ed. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Pirtle, Capt. A. The Battle of Tippecanoe. [Filson Club Publications, No. 15.] Louisville, Ky.: John P. Morton & Co.
Shakespeare, W. Romeo and Juliet. Cassells. 10c.
Steevens, G. W. From Capetown to Ladysmith. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Stockton, F. R. Novels and Stories. Vols. VII. VIII. The House of Martha. Pomona's Travels. Scribners.
Trevor, L. Brother Officers: A Comedy in Three Acts. [Illustrations only.] R. H. Russell. 25c.

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